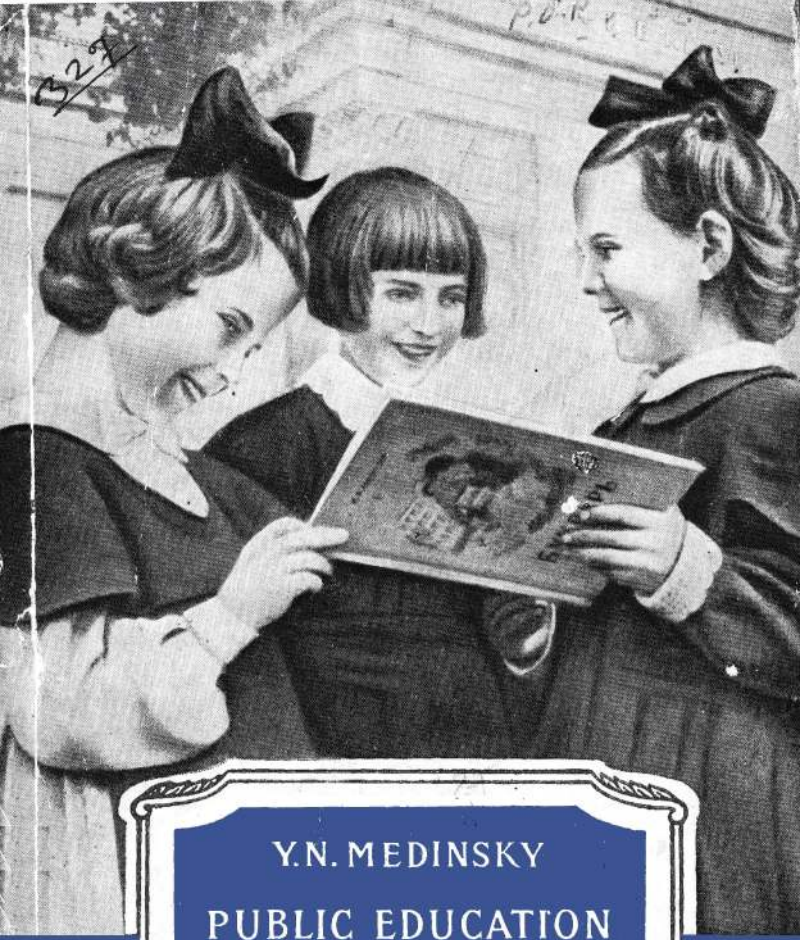

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PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE U. S. S. R.

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PUBLIC EDUCATION
in the
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The victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution brought the Soviet land a new social and state system of the most advanced type. The Soviet Union became a mighty industrial and collective-farm power, a country with the most progressive science and culture. The Soviet system furnished boundless opportunities for promoting education, made possible the florescence of the arts, science and literature of all the peoples inhabiting the country. A real cultural revolution was effected under the leadership of the Party of Lenin-Stalin as a result of which the broadest sections of the working people now have access to science and education.

The achievements in the sphere of education in the U.S.S.R. are truly colossal.

In prerevolutionary Russia only 5,000 children received preschool training; today our kindergartens cater to several million children.

In an unprecedentedly short space of time —in the course of only a few years—universal

and compulsory free education was introduced for all peoples in the U.S.S.R.

The number of pupils attending general and technical schools increased from 7,900,000 in prerevolutionary Russia to 37,000,000 in 1950, that is, by more than 4½ times. The number of students in higher educational establishments showed an elevenfold increase for the same period.

Many peoples have received their written language for the first time.

Prior to the revolution there were no children's extraschool establishments (children's clubs, libraries, Pioneer houses, centres for young naturalists and technicians, tourist bases and children's parks). Today a wide network of such establishments covers the Soviet Union.

By 1939 the number of public libraries had increased six times compared to 1914. Workers' clubs, houses of culture, village clubs and reading rooms, schools and courses for adults, museums and lecture centres complete the finely-planned system of Soviet education, a system designed to meet the requirements of people of all ages.

Such rapid development of the schools, and of public education in general, as witnessed

in the U.S.S.R. has no precedent in the annals of mankind.

Soviet rule has raised public education to a height never attained in any capitalist state.

The entire system of public education in the U.S.S.R. ensures the communist education of the youth, the education of a new, people's socialist intelligentsia, the education of millions of active builders and defenders of communist society.

The Soviet system of education has given all the peoples of the U.S.S.R. the conditions that make for the florescence of a culture that is socialist in content and national in form.

AIMS AND TASKS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE U.S.S.R.

The educational system of the U.S.S.R. differs fundamentally from all other systems, including the system practised in old, prerevolutionary Russia and those current in capitalist countries. This difference inevitably arises from the very nature of the U.S.S.R. as a state of the new type—the Socialist State.

The nature of the state determines the aims and tasks of public education in the given state.

In an interview with the English writer, H. G. Wells, Joseph Vissarionovich Stalin, leader of the Soviet people, stated that "education is an instrument whose effect depends on who wields it."

The ruling classes of tsarist Russia—the landlords and capitalists—were not in the least interested in raising the cultural level of the broad mass of the population. On the con-

trary, the rulers of prerevolutionary Russia were of the opinion that it was easier to hold in obedience a people that was ignorant and illiterate. Culture was deliberately withheld from the children of workers and peasants; only elementary schools were open to them and the overwhelming majority of the children were unable to attend even these. The whole system of public education was designed in such a way as to make the elementary school a blind alley for the children of working people, that is to say, to close all doors to further general education. They could not pass from elementary to secondary school which accepted only the children of the propertied classes. In 1887, Delyanov, Minister of Education, issued an order to the effect that "children of coachmen, footmen, cooks, washerwomen and of other lower classes," were not to be accepted in gymnasiums. The order cynically stated that there "was really no need" for such people "to aspire to a secondary and higher education."

According to V. I. Lenin's precise definition the schools in tsarist Russia "... were completely turned into an instrument of bourgeois class domination; they were saturated, through and through, with the bourgeois

caste spirit; and their purpose was to give the capitalists obsequious servants and efficient workers."

Incidentally, Russia was by no means an exception in this respect. Lenin's definition of the class nature of the school can be fully applied to any bourgeois state. The policy of restricting the possibilities of education for working people is characteristic of all capitalist countries, including those which like to boast about their "democratic nature."

In capitalist countries different kinds of schools exist for different classes: there is one kind of school for the poor, another for the rich. In France, for instance, children of working people have access only to elementary school; big obstacles are put in the way to their entering secondary school—the lycée or college—which is open primarily to the children of the bourgeoisie. Britain has special schools, such as Eton and Harrow, which are attended exclusively by the sons of the privileged classes. In the United States where, formally, "equal" opportunities exist for all, only well-to-do parents can afford to give their children a secondary and higher education. As for the overwhelming majority of working-class children they have to rest con-

tent with elementary school. Negroes in the Southern states are barred from schools attended by whites. In the Northern states, even though there are no special laws prohibiting Negroes from attending the same schools as whites, matters are no better because of the degrading policy of racial discrimination practised there.

The aim of the bourgeois school is to train, from among the younger generation, faithful servants and defenders of the capitalist order, to educate the youth in a spirit of loyalty to the exploiting ruling classes and to the regimes set up by them. This school cultivates egoistical, private-property traits of character, propagates chauvinism, national animosity and racial discrimination. The bourgeoisie permits the working people to receive an education only to the extent that this fits in with its (the bourgeoisie's) interests.

The Soviet school has nothing in common with such aims. As stated in the program of the Communist Party, the Soviet State aims to transform the school "from an instrument of the class domination of the bourgeoisie into an instrument that entirely does away with the division of society into classes; into an instrument for the communist regeneration of so-

ciety." And the Soviet State is firmly and steadily advancing toward this goal.

The fundamental difference between Soviet public education and the educational system applied in capitalist countries lies, above all, in the fact that Soviet education is *public* in the widest sense of the term, that is, is accessible to the whole people and exclusively serves the interests of the people.

The Soviet State is vitally interested in the widest possible sections of the population, in the whole people, acquiring culture and knowledge. A new social system of the highest and most perfect type—Communism—is being built in the U.S.S.R., and only highly-cultured people who have mastered the achievements of science, art and literature, can successfully accomplish this world-historic task. Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, leader and founder of the Soviet State, wrote: "You can become a Communist only when you enrich your mind with a knowledge of all the treasures created by mankind."

Stalin's well-known words: "We want all our workers and peasants to be cultured and educated, and we shall achieve this in time," have become the program of action of the Soviet State in the sphere of public education.

No racial, national, property, social or any

other restrictions exist in the Soviet school. Its doors are open wide to the children of all working people—workers, peasants and intellectuals, irrespective of their colour and nationality.

Naturally, the upbringing, education and training of the rising generation in the U.S.S.R., as a most important function of the state, are subordinate to the interests of the state. The all-round development of the individual, the training of fully educated, active and conscious builders of communist society, their education in the spirit of communist morality—such is the aim pursued by the Soviet school.

Just what, concretely, is meant by "communist training"?

An exhaustive answer to this question can be found in many of the works and statements by leaders and prominent figures of the Soviet State. Vladimir Ilyich Lenin pointed out that communist training meant unstinting efforts in the interests of the common cause; that communist ethics and morality were based on the struggle to destroy the old exploiting order and to consolidate and complete Communism. Lenin wrote that "Morality serves the purpose of helping human society to rise to

a higher level and to get rid of the exploitation of labour."

Mikhail Ivanovich Kalinin, the late Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., defined the principles of communist training as follows: "Communist principles, taken in their elementary form, are the principles of highly-educated, honest, advanced people; they are love for one's socialist motherland; friendship, comradeship, humanity, honesty, love for socialist labour and a great many other universally understood lofty qualities. The nurturing, the cultivation of these attributes, of these lofty qualities, is the most important component part of communist education."

In conclusion I would like to quote Andrei Alexandrovich Zhdanov, outstanding Soviet statesman, on the subject. In one of his speeches Zhdanov said: "The young Soviet generation has ahead of it the job of strengthening the power and might of the Socialist Soviet system, of making full use of the motive forces of Soviet society to bring about a new unprecedented florescence of our prosperity and culture. In order to cope with these great tasks the young generation must be trained to be steadfast and of good cheer, not to be afraid

of difficulties, to go out to meet these difficulties and overcome them. Our people must be educated and highly principled, must have high cultural and moral requirements and tastes. With this aim in view we must . . . train the youth in the spirit of selfless devotion to the Soviet system, in the spirit of selfless service in the interests of the people."

Mental, moral, esthetic and physical training and polytechnical education are different aspects of communist training, but they are closely linked into one whole.

Mental training and education is the development of the really scientific, dialectical and materialistic world outlook, the acquirement of systematic knowledge—the principles of science; the development of the memory, perception, imagination, faculties, speech; development of the ability to independently acquire knowledge and to apply this knowledge in practice.

In his speech at the Third Congress of the Young Communist League of Russia in 1920, V. I. Lenin stated that it was necessary to gain a knowledge of the culture created over the ages of mankind's development.

Instruction in communist morality is closely linked up with the mental training and

education practised by the Soviet system of public education.

Instruction in communist morality is subordinate to the great tasks of building the new society. This means training courageous citizens of the Socialist State who deeply love their Motherland and are prepared and able to defend it against the enemy; of training people conscious of their civic duty, able to fight for the common cause of the working people, disciplined, staunch, strong of will, honest, active and resolute champions of Communism. The Great Patriotic War showed that the Soviet people, educated by the school and whole social system of the Land of Socialism met, with honour, the high demands made on citizens of the U.S.S.R. by the Motherland.

The program of the C.P.S.U.(B.) raises as an important task in the sphere of public education the need to "make known the treasures of art and to bring them within the reach of the working people."

Esthetical training in school has as its purpose to acquaint the rising generation with the past and contemporary achievements of art. The youth is learning from the great works of art to appreciate all that is beautiful in nature and society, to treasure every-

thing progressive and heroic which furthers the struggle of the working people to build a communist society as speedily as possible.

In class society, art has always been the exclusive possession of the privileged classes. "Even in Russia," wrote Lenin in 1910, "Tolstoy the artist is known only to a miserable minority. To make his great works really accessible to *all*, it is necessary to fight and keep fighting against a social order which has condemned millions and tens of millions to ignorance, oppression, back-breaking toil and poverty; a socialist upheaval is necessary."

Literature and other forms of art (painting, music, the theatre, etc.) came within the reach of the people only after the victory of the proletarian revolution. The October Revolution awakened the latent creative abilities of the numerous peoples inhabiting the U.S.S.R., helped their art to blossom, brought to the fore talented writers, poets, painters, musicians and artists from among the working people of all the nationalities in the U.S.S.R.

Physical training is a necessary aspect of communist education and of the whole Soviet system of public education. It is promoted by a series of measures for the protection of mother and child, by proper physical training in

preschool establishments (kindergartens and children's playgrounds); considerable attention is paid to physical training in school, in extraschool activities (physical-culture groups in school), and in extraschool establishments (Young Pioneer houses, Young Pioneer camps, children's tourist camps, etc.).

A characteristic feature of physical training in the U.S.S.R. is its close ties with the mental, moral and esthetical development of the younger generation. Physical training is not something isolated and self-sufficient. It is an organic part of communist education. Great importance is attached to physical training, but it is by no means given priority as, for instance, is the case in certain bourgeois countries where the schools take a greater pride in the sports records of their pupils than in their achievements in the sciences. Soviet physical training is not one-sided—it does not stress militarization, or go in exclusively for sports, games and gymnastics. The elements of nature (air, sun, water), natural movements (walking, running, jumping), tourism, games, sports and gymnastics come in for their proper share in Soviet physical training.

Polytechnical education is closely interrelated with the above-mentioned aspects of

communist training (and especially with mental training).

The program of the C.P.S.U.(B.) provides for "free and compulsory general and polytechnical (giving the student a theoretical and practical knowledge of all the main branches of production) education for children of both sexes under 17 years of age."

In pursuance of this the Soviet school equips the student with a knowledge of the principles of science, thus providing a reliable foundation for a theoretical understanding of the principles governing the main branches of production; an understanding of the importance of machinery, a knowledge of large-scale industrial and agricultural production and how to operate the simplest implements of production. The Soviet school and children's extra-school establishments devote considerable attention to preparing the rising generation to take their place in life; to training them to have a socialist attitude toward labour and how to work. This, however, is not turned into narrow utilitarianism; it does not replace systematic study of the principles of the sciences.

Article 121 of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R., the Fundamental Law of the Soviet

State, named the Stalin Constitution in honour of its architect, states: "Citizens of the U.S.S.R. have the right to education."

Similar formulations may be found in the constitutions of other states. But in bourgeois constitutions such formulations are nothing but empty declarations, not backed by any guarantees and are therefore absolutely unrealistic, whereas the rights proclaimed by the Soviet Constitution are guaranteed by the gains of Socialism and ensured by the necessary material means.

As stated in the same Article of the Constitution, the right to education "is ensured by universal and compulsory elementary education; by free education up to and including the seventh grade; by a system of state stipends for students of higher educational establishments who excel in their studies; by instruction in schools being conducted in the native language, and by the organization in the factories, state farms, machine and tractor stations, and collective farms of free vocational, technical and agronomic training for the working people."

Suffice it to point out that in 1950 the U.S.S.R. allocated 14% of state budget appropriations for public education while the

U.S. budget for 1949-50, for instance, allows for only 1% of its appropriations for education.

Public education in the U.S.S.R. is based on the most advanced democratic principles. They are:

Full equality of all nationalities. All republics of the Soviet Union, all its peoples are developing a culture that is socialist in content and national in form. Children, irrespective of their nationality, receive elementary and secondary education in their native language. The peoples who had no alphabet before the October Revolution now have their written language. Every possibility of fostering chauvinism and misanthropy is completely excluded. Persons of all nationalities have the same right to enter any of the country's educational establishments.

Full equality of men and women. In all schools (both boys' and girls'), teaching is conducted in keeping with a common program. The graduates of both schools enjoy equal rights. Girls are accepted into higher educational establishments on an equal footing with boys. Men and women teachers receive equal pay and have the same rights to pensions, to long-service bonuses, and so on.

State system of schools. All schools are opened, maintained and run by the state. This ensures uniformity in all educational work, the proper planning of the school network, the material provision and stability of the schools and uniformity and continuity of the program. The state system of public education is the best means of enabling Soviet citizens to realize their right to education, for it eliminates all chance and lack of coordination in the organization of public education, precludes any dependence on private or public philanthropy, and the possibility of the school being used for commercial or other purposes which have no relation to the direct functions of the school.

Separation of the school from the church. In the U.S.S.R., where the church is separated from the state and the school from the church, education is not fettered by religious influence and is conducted on a really scientific, materialistic basis. Religious-mystical propaganda, no matter what its nature, is excluded from schools and other educational establishments.

Universal and public nature of education. Universal and compulsory free education in the form of the seven-year school has been introduced for all the peoples inhabiting the Soviet Union. The country's network of sec-

ondary schools and secondary vocational establishments affords everybody wishing to enter them the opportunity to do so.

The state renders every assistance to its citizens to receive an education. This assistance takes the form of stipends in higher educational establishments and secondary vocational schools, the organization of boarding schools, dormitories, dining halls, and so on.

Uniformity of the schools and continuity of all links in the public educattional system. In place of the different types of schools existing in Russia before the revolution (and still to be found in bourgeois states), schools which were organized on the class principle, we have a uniform, general educational system in the Soviet Union which covers the citizens of all nationalities inhabiting the country. Nor are there blind-alley schools in the U.S.S.R. which preclude all opportunities to further studies. There is complete continuity between all links and stages in the Soviet educational system (the program of the elementary school is the same as the program of the first four classes of the seven-year school and of the secondary school, and the program of the seven-year school the same as the first seven classes of the secondary school). This system makes it

possible for every Soviet citizen to advance, unhampered, from the lower stages of education to the higher, it depending entirely on the aptitude and diligence of the student and not in the least on how well-to-do his family happens to be.

Close contact between the school and the public. The Young Communist League of the Soviet Union, the trade unions, the different educational societies, collective farms and parents take a keen interest and an active part in the work of the schools and other educational establishments. All kindergartens and schools have their parents' committees. The Soviet public widely discusses questions of education.

THE CULTURAL REVOLUTION IN THE U.S.S.R.

According to the general literacy of the population, the number of schools and pupils attending these, Russia was culturally among the most backward countries before the revolution. In 1913 Vladimir Ilyich Lenin wrote: "... nearly *four-fifths* of Russia's children and juveniles are *deprived* of public education."

Eight million children and juveniles were attending the country's schools in 1914, according to official data, while another 30,000,000 remained illiterate. The census for 1897 shows that only 24% of the population over nine years of age knew how to read and write. Literacy among the non-Russian nationalities in the outlying regions of the country was at a frightfully low level. Thus, according to the same census, only 1-3% of the peoples of Central Asia—Uzbeks, Tajiks, Kazakhs, Kirghizians, Turkmen—were literate, and in a number of districts the figure reached 0.1%.

Forty nationalities did not even have their own written language. Such was the situation in prerevolutionary Russia where, in Lenin's words, the tsarist government was the most malevolent and irreconcilable enemy of enlightenment of the people.

This bitter heritage of tsarism was abolished only under Soviet power. Within a few days after the conquest of power by the working class in November 1917 the Soviet Government addressed a call to the population outlining the guiding principles of public education: universal and compulsory education of children of both sexes, free tuition, material provisions for teachers, and so on.

Notwithstanding the difficult economic situation brought about by the Civil War and military intervention, the young Soviet republic already in the early years of its existence did much to advance public education. A large number of new schools was opened and courses started for training teachers.

On December 26, 1919, the Council of People's Commissars, on the initiative of Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, issued a decree on abolishing illiteracy. This decree made it compulsory for all people of the Soviet republic between the ages of 8 and 50 to learn to read and write

in their native language, or in Russian if they so desired.

Tens of thousands of people—schoolteachers, students, secondary-school pupils and other representatives of the Soviet intelligentsia—took part in the work to abolish illiteracy. The outstanding role played in this field by the Young Communist League merits special attention. Everywhere YCL'ers carried on propaganda for the abolition of illiteracy, assisted in opening new schools and taught the illiterate and semiliterate to read and write.

Schools for the abolition of illiteracy were opened in all parts of the country. Studies were conducted, as a rule, in the evenings on school premises, in workers' clubs, at all enterprises and in all villages. They were attended by big groups of 20 to 30 people, or by small groups of 3 to 5; often studies were individual. It was a nation-wide crusade against illiteracy in the literal sense of the word.

In 1932 7,600,000 adults were attending schools for the abolition of illiteracy and nearly as many the schools for the abolition of semiliteracy. Literacy among the population (up to 50 years of age) increased from 56.6% at the end of 1926 to 89.1% by the beginning

of 1939. Nearly 50,000,000 adults learned to read and write between 1920-40.

The Soviet Union is today a country of universal literacy.

Parallel with this immense work measures were taken to extend the network of general educational schools.

School education developed at a particularly rapid rate during the years of the First Five-Year Plan (1928-32). Speaking at the Sixteenth Congress of the Communist Party in the summer of 1930, J. V. Stalin said:

"The main thing now is to introduce compulsory elementary education. I say 'main' because such a change would mean a decisive step in the cultural revolution. And it has long been high time to begin this, because we have today all that is necessary to organize general elementary education in the vast majority of districts of the U.S.S.R."

On August 14, 1930, the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. passed a decision introducing universal compulsory schooling for all children, starting with the age of eight: a minimum of four years' elementary schooling and in industrial towns and areas a minimum of seven years.

To enable children to attend school the state allocated special funds. These funds were spent on footwear and clothing for the less provided children, on hot breakfasts in schools, on providing accommodation (dormitories), and so on. Construction work on schools developed apace, the number of courses and schools for training teachers sharply increased. The same holds true for the publication of textbooks.

As seen from the following table the number of school pupils increased by three to four million annually between 1930-32.

	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32
Number of elementary, seven-year and secondary schools in (thousands)	124.8	133.2	152.8	168.1
Number of school pupils (in millions)	12.0	13.5	17.6	20.9

In order to fully appreciate how quickly the law on compulsory education was put into effect suffice it to point out that during the four years of 1929-33 alone the number of pupils in the U.S.S.R. increased by 9,300,000. This figure is far in excess of that ever reached by tsarist

Russia over the centuries of its existence: there were only 7,900,000 pupils in tsarist Russia in 1914-15.

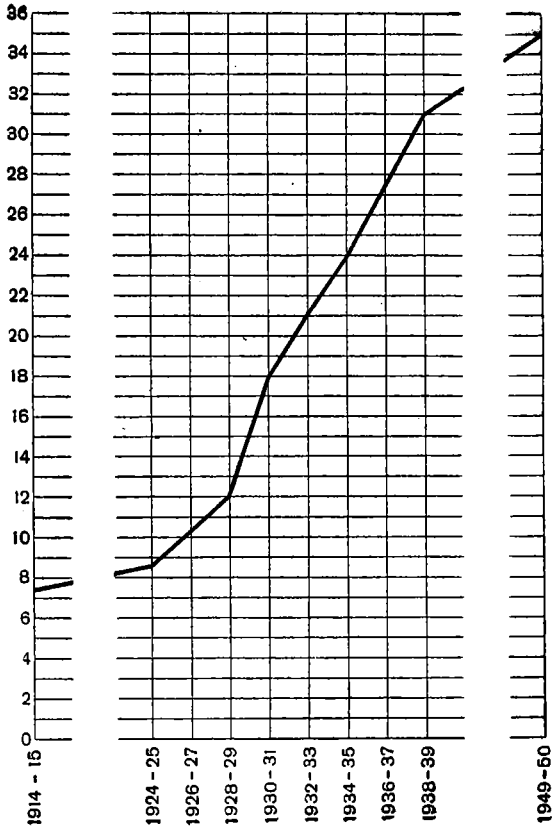
In 1934, J. V. Stalin, summarizing the results of cultural development, noted that "during this period, the U.S.S.R. has become radically transformed.... From an ignorant, illiterate and uncultured country it has become —or rather it is becoming—a literate and cultured country, covered by a vast network of higher, intermediate and elementary schools teaching in the languages of the nationalities of the U.S.S.R."

The number of schools and pupils steadily increased in subsequent years. During the five years of 1933-38 alone, over 20,000 schools were built, that is, nearly as many as had been built in 200 years under tsarism. In 1938-39 the number of pupils in the Soviet Union topped the 31,500,000 mark, that is, four times the number before the revolution.

The rise in culture was particularly rapid in the districts most backward under tsarism. Thus, in the Uzbek Republic, for instance, the number of schools increased twenty-eight fold compared to prerevolutionary times and the number of pupils seventy times. The sweeping development of industry, agriculture and

culture in the U.S.S.R. stimulated a tremendous rise in higher education in the country. In 1914 tsarist Russia counted 91 higher educational establishments with a student body of 112,000; in 1939 the U.S.S.R. had 750 higher educational establishments attended by 620,000 students.

Soviet schools suffered heavily as a result of the war and German occupation. In the temporarily-occupied Soviet regions the Hitler barbarians ruthlessly destroyed schools, children's homes, museums, libraries and universities. The Nazis destroyed and pillaged 82,000 schools (these had been attended by 15,000,000 pupils), 334 higher educational establishments, hundreds of museums, thousands of clubs and libraries. Although the network of schools considerably shrank during the war years, the decreased number of schools carried on with their work throughout the war. The Government continued to pay great attention to public education. A number of important decisions were passed during the Great Patriotic War, aimed at promoting universal compulsory education and strengthening the school. Control of school attendance was increased in 1943. At the beginning of the 1944-45 school year the school age was lowered from eight to seven



Growth in the number of school pupils in the U.S.S.R. (in millions)

in the R.S.F.S.R. and other republics. This increased the number of pupils in the first grade by several million. Separate boys' and girls' schools were introduced and also matriculation certificates, and gold and silver medals for pupils graduating with excellent marks.

The Soviet people rapidly healed the wounds inflicted by the war. As a result of the Soviet State's all-out effort the school network was fully restored in record time.

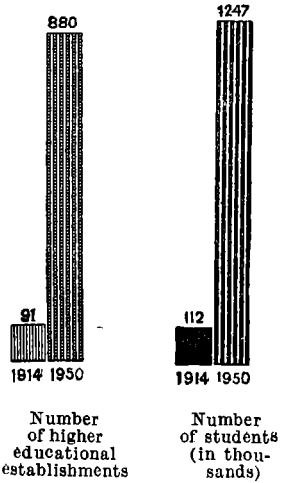
In 1950 over 37,000,000 pupils were attending elementary, seven-year and secondary schools, technical high schools and other special educational establishments. In the same year there were 880 higher educational establishments with a student body of 1,247,000 (including correspondence-course students).

In higher education the Soviet Union already prior to the war had outstripped not only any single capitalist country, but Europe as a whole. There are more students in Moscow, for instance, than in the whole of Britain or France.

These remarkable successes in the sphere of public education have been achieved in an incredibly short space of time thanks to the great attention paid to the education of the

peoples of the U.S.S.R. by the Communist Party, the Soviet Government and by J. V. Stalin personally.

The state of public education in the capitalist countries presents an entirely different picture. In the U.S.A., where the bourgeois press never tires of eulogizing the "American way of life," there were 10,000,000 illiterate people according to the 1940 census, and another 20,000,000 who had not completed elementary school. According to U.S. statistics, the number of school pupils decreased by 2,750,000 between 1930-45, although there was a considerable increase in the population for the same period. In 1944 5,663,000 children were not attending school.



Number of higher educational establishments and students in prerevolutionary Russia and in the U.S.S.R.

Commenting on the decline of the schools the *New York Times* wrote that although American schools had not been bombed like the schools in Europe they were, nonetheless, in such a disastrous state, that they gave the impression of having been raided by heavy bombers.

All these facts speak of the decadence of culture in the capitalist countries where everything is done to keep the working people in ignorance.

A comparison of the headway made in education in the national republics of the Soviet Union with the state of affairs in this sphere in some of the countries neighbouring with the U.S.S.R., reveals an interesting picture:

"Let us take, say, the Azerbaijan and Uzbek Soviet republics; and, of the states bordering upon the U.S.S.R., Iran and Turkey....

"Before the establishment of Soviet power, 90 per cent of the population of Azerbaijan and Uzbekistan were illiterate. By 1946, illiteracy in these republics had been entirely eliminated. In Iran today, some 85 per cent of the population is illiterate; in Turkey, some 66 per cent. In almost 70 per cent of the villages in the Turkish countryside, there are no schools.

"The Azerbaijan Soviet Socialist Republic has 19 institutions of higher learning, with a student body of 29,000. That makes one institution of higher learning for every 163,000 of the population. Iran has only five institutions of higher learning, with a student body of about 4,500: one institution of higher learning for every 3,400,000 of the population.

"The Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic has 36 institutions of higher learning, with a student body of 38,000, making one institution of higher learning for every 175,000 of the population. In Turkey, there are 10 institutions of higher learning, with a student body of about 11,000: one institution of higher learning for every 1,950,000 of the population."*

These comparisons show, on the one hand, the cultural growth of the free peoples of the Soviet Union, made possible by the Lenin-Stalin national policy; on the other, the fate of peoples who continue to stagnate, as in Iran and Turkey, under the rule of the landlords and khans, the capitalists and foreign enslavers.

L. Beria, *The Great Inspirer and Organizer of the Victories of Communism*, Moscow 1950, pp. 15, 16-17.

SYSTEM OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE U.S.S.R.

The system of public education in the Soviet Union covers all ages, beginning with preschool, and is made up of the following component parts: 1) preschool educational establishments; 2) general educational schools of different types and grades for children and adults; 3) educational establishments for orphans; 4) extraschool establishments for children; 5) vocational training establishments; 6) higher educational establishments; 7) cultural-educational establishments for adults.

Preschool educational establishments meeting the requirements of children under three, include centres for the protection of mother and child (Mother and Child Centres), children's consultation centres, and nurseries. They come under the Ministry of Public Health. At the consultation centres mothers can get free advice on child care from doctors and experienced children's teachers, and also medical assistance for their infants. Mothers

working in factories or offices can leave their children in day nurseries where they are looked after by a qualified personnel.

Other preschool establishments, such as kindergartens and playgrounds, cover the older children—between the ages of three and seven. Kindergartens are open the year round and playgrounds mostly in the summer time. Here, too, working parents can leave their children for the day, where they receive the necessary care and food.

There are three types of *general educational schools*: elementary, seven-year and secondary. The elementary school consists of four classes, the seven-year school of seven classes and the secondary school of ten (and in some of the republics, such as Georgia, Latvia and Estonia, 11 classes). The program of the elementary school is similar to the program of the first four classes of the seven-year and secondary schools; that of the seven-year school to the first seven classes of secondary school. Elementary education is universal, compulsory and free. Tuition in the seven-year school is also free and up until last year was compulsory only in the towns. Beginning with 1949 seven-year schooling was made compulsory in the countryside as well.

There are *special general secondary schools* for children who are musically gifted or show an aptitude for the fine arts. Apart from a general education these schools give the pupils a wider art training than in the ordinary schools.

Special types of *sanatorium-schools* exist for children of poor health, and *special schools* for children suffering from physical or other deformities (blindness, deafness, mental backwardness). The term of studies in these schools is longer.

The general educational schools include *schools for young industrial and agricultural workers* and schools for adults. These schools follow the same program as in the seven-year and secondary schools.

Orphans are cared for by the network of *children's homes* where they are brought up at the expense of the state.

The education received by children in the schools is enriched and supplemented in the *extraschool establishments*: Young Pioneer palaces and houses, children's libraries, theatres, parks, tourist camps, young naturalists' and technicians' centres. All these are maintained by the state.

The *elementary vocational schools* aim to train skilled workers (for complex trades) and

general workers. Lower vocational training is provided by the educational establishments of the Ministry of Labour Reserves (trades, railway and factory schools) where also general subjects are taught. In addition to this there is a large number of different kinds of schools and courses at the enterprises themselves for training skilled workers.

Secondary vocational training—technical, agricultural, economic, pedagogical, medical, art, etc.—is provided by the respective vocational schools. These graduate specialists in the given line, and accept pupils who have completed the seven-year school. The term of study in the secondary vocational school is, as a rule, four years.

Higher education is provided by the numerous universities, institutes, academies and other educational establishments, which graduate highly-skilled experts. Only pupils who have successfully finished secondary school can enter a higher educational establishment, where the term of study is between four and six years.

The network of *cultural-educational establishments*—clubs, libraries, museums and lecture centres—has greatly extended during the years of Soviet power. These establishments

offer the working people every opportunity for self-education and for enriching their knowledge.

Such is the finely-planned and flexible system of public education in the U.S.S.R., a system designed for people of all ages, a system that furnishes the Soviet citizen with wide opportunities for education and self-education, for raising his skill, a system that meets the most varied cultural interests.

This system of public education is supervised by several ministries and departments.

Preschool establishments, general elementary, seven-year and secondary schools, the schools for adults and for young industrial and agricultural workers, the children's homes, special schools, as well as the extraschool establishments—all these come under the Ministries of Public Education of the Union republics and their local organs, the departments of public education.

The *Ministry of Higher Education of the U.S.S.R.* is responsible for the general organizational and educational work of all secondary vocational and higher educational establishments. Some of the higher educational establishments (pedagogical, art, medical and others) and all secondary vocational schools

are financially and administratively subordinate to the corresponding ministries and departments.

The lower vocational schools come under the *Ministry of Labour Reserves of the U.S.S.R.* (trades, railway and factory schools).

The *committees on cultural-educational establishments* are in charge of the cultural-educational establishments for adults (clubs, libraries, museums and lecture centres) in each of the Union republics.

All the listed ministries and departments (committees) are, in their turn, subordinate to the highest organs of power in the Soviet Union—the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. and the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. These exercise legislation on universal compulsory education, fix the types of schools, approve their rules and general supervision of the entire system of public education in the Soviet Union.

Having acquainted the reader with the general system of public education in the U.S.S.R. I will now pass over to a description of each of the links in this system.

PRESCHOOL EDUCATION

There were only 285 kindergartens in prerevolutionary Russia, and these, with few exceptions, were privately run. Only wealthy parents could afford to place their children in them. Russia had in all 12-15 free, so-called people's kindergartens. No more than 7,400 children were provided for in the kindergartens.

The U.S.S.R. has more than 25,000 kindergartens, not counting the thousands of children's summer playgrounds (seasonal kindergartens) attended by 3,500,000 children.

Public preschool education in the U.S.S.R. provides children between the ages of three and seven with the rudiments of general development and training and enables mothers to take part in the industrial, state, cultural and political life of the country.

Soviet pedagogy has elaborated its own system of preschool education which differs completely from other systems. The Fröbel

and Montessori systems, accepted in bourgeois countries, suffer from serious shortcomings. These systems, if anything, tend to train small children rather than educate them. All the so-called Fröbel virtues and Fröbel pursuits—cutting out of intricate paper figures, wicker work, adding up with sticks and rings and games for developing the eyesight, hearing, sense of touch, etc.—are uninteresting, ineffective and needlessly tire out the child.

Unlike this artificial system the Soviet system of preschool education carefully takes into account the age peculiarities and psychology of the child, his specific age interests, natural volatility and exuberance, treats the child as something real and not abstract.

Soviet kindergartens give children the proper physical development, teach them the elementary rules of hygiene, acquaint them with the surrounding world by bringing them into direct contact with nature and people, with the help of different didactic materials (pictures, object lotto, etc.) and by reading to them.

Great attention is paid to developing the child's speech. In the older groups (between the ages of five and seven), children are taught to read and write, and gradually prepared for

The Teremok kindergarten in Stalinogorsk,
Moscow Region

Story hour in the Teremok kindergarten

school. Music, singing, drawing and modelling lessons, and rhythmic movements to music, develop the artistic faculties of the child. Children are taught to love their Soviet Motherland, their people and leaders, are brought up in a collective spirit; they are taught to acquire working and organizational habits, to be orderly and neat, how to behave among children and grownups, to respect their elders and to love their parents, to be independent and to look after themselves, to handle things properly and with care.

Games are the principal form of educational work in Soviet kindergartens and from the methodical aspect are planned in such a way as to contribute to the mental, moral, artistic and physical development of the child, to broaden his outlook, develop his discriminative powers, perception, dexterity and a love of the collective.

The daily routine in a kindergarten is approximately as follows:

It opens between seven and ten o'clock in the morning, depending on when the parents have to go to work. As a rule the children spend an hour at games and other pursuits on the grounds of the kindergarten before going into breakfast. After breakfast general lessons

are conducted: drawing or singing, rhythmic movements to music, reading, storytelling, mobile and didactic games and physical exercises. The duration of these lessons varies, depending on the age of the children: in the younger groups from 12 to 20 minutes, in the middle groups from 25 to 30 minutes and in the older groups from 30 to 40 minutes. Two lessons are held in the middle and older groups in the course of the day.

General lessons over, the children are taken out for a walk, usually on the grounds of the kindergarten, where they play. Sometimes they are taken for an outing into town or to a nearby park and in the summer time to some forest or field. In the summer months they cultivate their kitchen gardens, their work consisting of watering and weeding the plots. While out walking, or when at work, the children are taught to observe animal and plant life, and to tend them.

Then comes the dinner hour. After dinner the children are put to bed (sleeping from 1½ to 2 hours). When they get up they are served afternoon tea. The rest of the day, up to 6 or 7 o'clock in the evening is spent at games and lessons, then comes supper after which the children are taken home.

In the summer months all kindergartens go into the countryside.

Parents' committees, elected every year at general parents' meetings, are organized to help the kindergartens in their activities and to maintain contact with the parents. The teachers in the kindergartens carry on their work in close touch with the parents' committees and the family. Talks are regularly held at which parents are advised on questions relating to the proper upbringing of their children. Children's concerts are arranged from time to time to which parents are invited.

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL SCHOOL

Every child, on attaining the age of seven, must go to school regardless of where he lives, and what his nationality.

Elementary school consists of four classes. Its study plan and program (like those of the seven-year and secondary schools), are determined in each Union Republic by the Government and take into account the national peculiarities of the given Republic. These is no fundamental difference, however, in the programs.

The lesson is the main form of school instruction. The study plan provides for four lessons a day in each class and five once a week in the third class and three times a week in the fourth class. Each lesson lasts 45 minutes.

The school year in the elementary, seven-year and secondary schools opens on September 1 and is divided into four terms: from Sep-

At a lesson in secondary school No. 101, Moscow

Morning exercises at school No. 5, Sevastopol

tember 1 to November 5, from November 9 to December 29, from January 13 to March 23, and from April 1 to May 20, in the first three classes and up to June 5 in the fourth class (because of examinations). Thus, pupils go on vacation three times a year: two weeks in winter, eight days in spring and nearly three months in the summer.

During the first week in school (first class) the teacher holds talks with the children, acquaints them with the school rules, ascertains who of them knows how to read, takes them out for walks, explains things to them with the aid of pictures, and so on. In this way the children gradually grow accustomed to their school environment and to the teacher. During their second week at school they begin to learn how to read and write.

Studies are conducted in the native language of the pupil, but beginning with the second class the Russian language is compulsory in the schools of all republics.

The principal methods of study are: the narrative with the teacher explaining things, talks, acquainting children with the textbook and other books, their written and graphic work. The object lesson is widely practised (pictures, tables, models, etc.); also natural science and

geography excursions are organized, and if there are places of historic interest and museums within the vicinity—excursions of an historical nature.

The elementary school (or, which is the same, the first four classes of the seven-year and secondary schools) gives the pupils a good grounding in the Russian language, teaches them to write and to read intelligently and with expression; acquaints them with the works of Russian literature suitable to their age, develops their ability to express their thoughts in verbal and written form and introduces them to the elementary rules of grammar.

In arithmetic the pupils learn the four operations of arithmetic on abstract and concrete numbers, the metric system and measurement of time, decimals and the rudiments of geometry.

In addition to the Russian (and native) language and arithmetic the program includes natural science, history, geography, physical training, drawing and singing. The pupil receives an elementary knowledge of natural science already in the first class during the lesson in Russian or native language. But it is taught as a separate subject only starting with the fourth class. In the course of the year

the children pass through a short course on inanimate nature (water, air, minerals, soil); the lessons are supplemented with excursions and simple practical studies. History and geography are taught on similar lines: they are introduced as separate subjects in the fourth class, but the children receive a rudimentary knowledge of these disciplines in the second and third classes during the Russian (and native) language lesson.

The pupil's level of knowledge is rated according to a system of five marks: 5 (excellent), 4 (good), 3 (satisfactory), 2 (bad) and 1 (very bad).

Pupils pass over from one class to another at the end of the school year: from the first three classes without examinations and on the basis of the year's progress; when finishing elementary school they have to take the examinations in Russian and arithmetic and in the non-Russian schools also in the native language.

The *seven-year school* (incomplete secondary), as the name itself implies, consists of seven classes. The higher three classes are the immediate continuation of elementary school. The following is the study plan of a seven-year school:

Subjects	Weekly number of lessons according to classes							Total study hours for the entire course
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	
Russian language and reading	15	14	15	8	10	8	6	2,508
Arithmetic	6	7	6	7	7	2	—	1,155
Algebra, geometry	—	—	—	—	—	5	6	362
Natural science	—	—	—	2(3)*	2	3	2	314
History	—	—	—	3	2	3(2)	2	314
Constitution of the U.S.S.R.	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	66
Geography	—	—	—	3(2)	3	2(3)	2(3)	346
Physics	—	—	—	—	—	2	3	165
Chemistry	—	—	—	—	—	—	3(2)	83
Foreign language	—	—	—	—	4	4	3	363
Physical training	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	396
Drawing	1	1	1	1	1	1	—	198
Mechanical drawing	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	33
Singing	1	1	1	1	—	—	—	132
Total	24	24	25	27	31	32	32	6,435

* Figures given in brackets indicate number of weekly hours in second half of year

The Russian lesson from the 5th to the 7th classes includes a systematic course of grammar, spelling and punctuation. At the classes in literature the pupils are acquainted with the Russian classics. These lessons serve as an introduction to the course on the history of Russian literature which is taught in the higher classes (8-10) of secondary school.

Mathematics in the seven-year school covers a regular course in simple fractions and decimals, percentages and proportions. Algebra and geometry are taught starting with the 6th class. During the mathematics lesson great attention is paid to linking theory with practice, to applying one's knowledge of mathematics when solving problems relating to the interrelated disciplines (physics, chemistry, astronomy), to technique and agriculture.

Botany and zoology are taught in the natural science class. Lessons are supplemented with work in laboratories and with the microscope, nature observations and with work in the school garden. The course in natural science, which develops the pupils' materialistic world outlook, is based on the principles of the materialist teachings of the eminent Russian scientist I. V. Michurin, the great transformer of nature. Plants and animals are stud-

ied in their natural environment and conditions of development; their organs are studied in relation to the functions they perform. The theoretical course in natural science is also closely linked up with practical questions of agriculture (horticulture, stock raising). The pupils do not confine themselves to a passive observation of plant and animal life but link this up with the creative transformation of nature. They learn to know how man, in changing external conditions, also changes organisms and vanquishes the elemental forces of nature.

The course in history covers the history of the ancient East, of ancient Greece and Rome, the Middle Ages and the early period of modern history, up to the time of the French bourgeois revolution of the 18th century. The course is so constructed as to give the pupil a concrete idea of the inception and development of every social order on the basis of the conditions of material life (or means of production) of society in each given historical period. The pupils have to know about the activities of historical figures and the historical facts, understand the conditions that gave rise to these facts and their natural development. The course in history reviews the development of class socie-

ty and lays bare its antagonistic nature; shows the class struggle and the inevitable overthrow of the moribund class social systems. The underlying idea of the whole course is the progressive development of human society, the inevitable destruction of the old, moribund order and the victory of the new, more advanced social system. This idea is strikingly evident when studying the disintegration of the ancient slave-owning world and its replacement by the feudal system which, in its turn, as capitalism and the bourgeoisie develop, is replaced through revolution by the capitalist system (the English and Dutch bourgeois revolutions of the 17th century, the French bourgeois revolution of the 18th century). Here the pupil is taught to understand the limited nature of bourgeois revolutions compared to the socialist revolution.

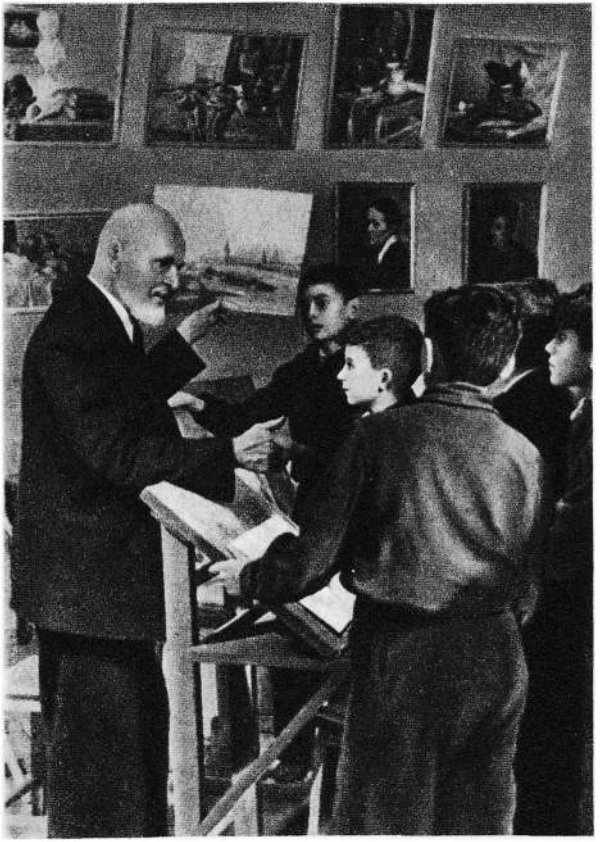
The course on the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. introduces the pupil to the state structure of the U.S.S.R., shows the superiority of the Soviet state system, as the higher form of democracy, over the state system in bourgeois countries; shows the organizing role of the Communist Party of Bolsheviks in all spheres of the political, economic and cultural life of the country, its inestimable services in devel-

oping the state, in strengthening its might; its organizing role in all the great achievements of the Soviet people.

The course in geography helps to mould the pupil's materialist world outlook, furnishes concrete information about the different parts of the world and the states situated therein; acquaints the pupil with the physical geography of the U.S.S.R. and its natural resources, develops a feeling of pride in the Socialist Motherland.

In physics the pupils attending incomplete secondary school learn the rudiments of mechanics, study heat, electricity and light. Chemistry is first taught in the 7th class.

The seven-year Soviet school gives its pupils a much broader general knowledge than, for instance, the eight-year elementary school in the United States. In Soviet schools arithmetic, for example, is taught on a broader basis than in the U.S.; what is more, in the elementary schools of the United States it is not so much a regular theoretical course, as a narrow, utilitarian business course adapted, in the main, to meet banking requirements. Physics and chemistry, which get nearly 250 hours in the program of Soviet schools, are not taught at all in the elementary schools of the United



Academician K. Yuon with pupils of the Moscow Secondary School of Art

Pupils of women's secondary school No. 59, Tashkent, getting out their wall newspaper dedicated to Alisher Navoi, the great Uzbek poet

States. Nor, for that matter, are such regular subjects as natural science, history and geography, which are basically studied in Soviet schools over a number of years, included in the curriculum of the eight-year American school. History and geography there are part of the general social sciences course which gives the pupil only a meagre and desultory knowledge. Thus, the school curricula in the states of Montana and North Carolina allow for only a cursory study of the ancient world, the Middle Ages and the beginning of modern history —only one year is devoted to these subjects. In the seven-year school in the U.S.S.R. these subjects are studied over a period of three years.

The *secondary school* consists of ten classes of which the first four fully correspond (in school program and age of the pupils) to elementary school and the first seven classes to the seven-year school. Children enter the first class at the age of seven and graduate when they are seventeen.

The number of Soviet secondary schools increased rapidly. In 1914-15 there were 1,953 secondary educational establishments (gymnasiums, commercial and technical schools) in prerevolutionary Russia attended by 635,591

pupils; in 1938-39 there were 12,469 schools with 9,028,156 pupils in the U.S.S.R. The increase was particularly rapid in the number of pupils in the higher classes of the rural secondary schools. The number of pupils in the higher classes of all secondary schools increased by 10.1 times between 1934 and 1939, and in the rural schools by 36.3 times. Big changes took place also in the composition of the school body. The proportion of girls considerably increased (from 37.6 per cent in 1928 to 51.6 per cent in 1938). This was a direct result of the changed status of women in a socialist state. Even in the schools of Central Asia where women suffered particular oppression in the past because of religious prejudices and general backwardness, the percentage of girl students reached 35-40. This was not much below the average level for the U.S.S.R. Such are the results of the Lenin-Stalin national policy which has brought freedom to all the peoples of the Soviet Union.

Until the autumn of 1943 the secondary school in the U.S.S.R. (like the schools of all other types and grades) was co-educational. Co-education was first introduced in the Soviet school in 1918 in the initial period of the October Revolution. This was necessary at the time,

firstly, as a measure in the struggle to achieve full equality of men and women (the curricula in the women's secondary educational establishments in prerevolutionary Russia covered fewer subjects than the curricula in the men's schools), and, secondly, in order to make secondary education accessible to all.

To have maintained separate secondary schools in that period, when there were not enough such schools in general, would have hampered the promotion of women's secondary education. With only a men's school open in some small town or village, girls could not receive a secondary education, even if their parents were desirous of giving them such an education. The economic position of the young Soviet Republic which had been undermined by World War I, by the Civil War and foreign intervention, did not permit developing a broad network of separate men's and women's secondary schools at the time as would meet the requirements of those eager to receive a secondary education.

Nearly a third of a century has passed since then. The principle of full equality of women and men took firm root in the consciousness and life of the peoples of the Soviet Union. The network of secondary schools greatly expand-

ed. The preconditions were created for taking stock of certain shortcomings in co-education—without in the least underrating the principle of equality, or making it difficult to enter secondary school.

The educational policy of the past few years aimed at improving the educational system in the school and, figuratively speaking, at putting the finishing touches to the edifice built.

The time had arrived to take into account: firstly, the peculiarities in the physical development of boys and girls, which became pronounced among the secondary-school pupils; secondly, the differences in the requirements in the physical training of boys and girls; thirdly, a certain difference in preparing them for practical life.

Separate instruction was first introduced as an experiment in the second half of 1942-43 in a number of secondary schools in Moscow. On the basis of this experiment separate schools for boys and girls were opened in 76 cities in the autumn of 1943-44 (in the capitals of the Union and autonomous republics and big cities), and separate men's and women's secondary schools. This did not affect the educational standard, or program

of the men's and women's schools; also the demands with regard to studies remained the same and the rights of pupils finishing school.

Starting with the 1944-45 school year separate schools were introduced in another 70 cities, and at the end of 1944-45 there were such schools already in 146 cities and in 1949 in nearly 200 cities.

To date there are two types of secondary schools in the U.S.S.R.—separate and co-educational (seven-year and secondary), with the latter predominating.

As earlier stated, the programs of the first seven years of secondary schools are the same as those of the seven-year school. We therefore give the study plan only for the higher (8-10) classes: (See page 62.—*Ed.*)

A comparison between the program of the Soviet secondary school and similar schools in prerevolutionary Russia shows that the Soviet school devotes much more hours to general educational subjects: the Russian language and literature, mathematics, natural science, physics, chemistry and astronomy. In the men's gymnasiums in prerevolutionary Russia 1,286 hours were allowed for the Russian language and literature. This is half the number of hours included in the program of the Soviet schools.

Subjects*	Weekly number of lessons					Total study hours for the entire course
	First seven classes	8th	9th	10th	Total	
Russian language and reading	76	—	—	—	76	2,508
Literature	—	5(6)	6	5	16.5	544
Arithmetic	35	—	—	—	35	1,155
Algebra, geometry, trigonometry	12	6	6	6	30	990
Natural science	9.5	2	2	—	13.5	545
History	9.5	4	4	4	21.5	705
Constitution of the USSR	2	—	—	—	2	66
Geography	10.5	3	2(3)	—	16	528
Physics	5	3	3(2)	4	14.5	478
Astronomy	—	—	—	1	1	33
Chemistry	2.5	2	3(2)	4(3)	10.5	346
Foreign languages	11	4(3)	3(2)	4	22	726
Physical training	12	2	2	2	18	594
Drawing	6	—	—	—	6	198
Mechanical drawing	1	1	1	1	4	132
Singing	4	—	—	—	4	132
Total	96	33	31	31.5	—	9,680

* Beginning with the 1948-49 school year, psychology and logics were introduced in 538 secondary

Physics were taught only during three years. Today it is a five-year course. Chemistry as a special subject did not figure at all in the school plan. Today it is a four-year course (346 hours).

The total number of school hours in the men's gymnasiums (8 basic classes and 2 preparatory) was 8,672. This is about 1,000 less than in the secondary schools of the U.S.S.R.

A comparison between the programs of the Soviet ten-year secondary school and the 12-year school in the United States also reveals the great superiority of the Soviet school. To begin with, lessons in the Soviet school are conducted six times a week as against five in America. This gives an additional 330 school days, or, 1,650 school hours in ten years. The course in physics, chemistry, literature, natural science, history and geography is a more pro-

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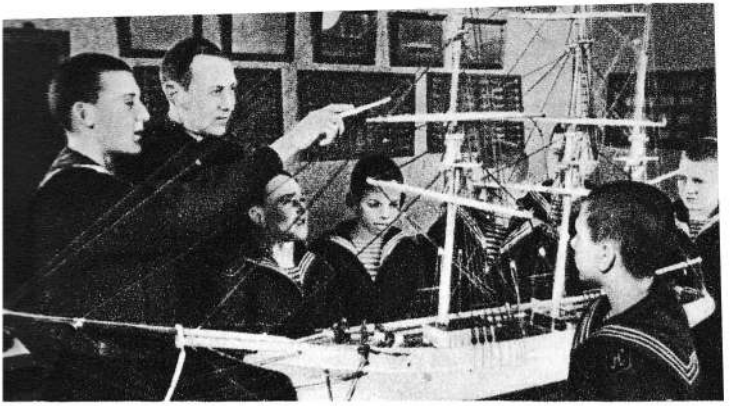
schools in 12 big cities (psychology two hours a week, starting with the 9th class, and logics two hours a week starting with the 10th). In the 1949-50 school year these subjects will be taught in 149 schools of Moscow and in 2,313 schools in other cities of the R.S.F.S.R. In the 1950-51 school year they will be included in the curricula of 3,192 rural schools. This will increase the weekly number of school hours to 33 and mean a change in the weekly number of hours for physics and chemistry in these classes.

found one in the Soviet school and gives the pupil a much broader and systematic knowledge than do the schools of the United States. A total of nearly 500 (500!) subjects are taught in the secondary schools of the United States and up to 25 and more subjects in each separate school. Moreover, it is left to the pupils to chose the subjects they prefer. The result is that a large number of them go in for subjects of a narrow, professional nature (and as often as not the "easier" ones). This has an extremely negative effect on the general education of the pupil. Even mathematics (algebra and trigonometry) is not obligatory. As a result you have many young people finishing school with a very elementary knowledge of mathematics, not advancing beyond simple equation. A special Harvard University commission set up to study the state of public education in the United States, reported that only 15 per cent of the country's secondary-school pupils studied natural science and geography and an even smaller percentage physics and chemistry.

Literature in the higher classes of the Soviet secondary school is studied from the aspect of its historical development. The pupils learn about the role and importance of literature in



The Nakhimov Naval School in Riga. The Nakhimov schools, which give their pupils a general secondary education in addition to specific training, were first opened during the Great Patriotic War for war orphans

Meeting of the literary circle of the 10th

School for young miners of the Stalin colliery
in Prokopievsk, Kuznetsk coal field

the life of Russian society; about the national traits and patriotism of Russian literature, the big role it played in the liberation and revolutionary struggle of all peoples. They learn to understand the ideological essence of a literary work, its composition, plot, characters and language; they acquaint themselves with the main periods in the development of literature and principal literary trends. The course in literature introduces the pupil to the outstanding works of world literature, shows the leading role of Russian and Soviet classics in the development of world literature.

Russian literature, beginning with the 10th century and ending with the literature of the 20th century (both prerevolutionary and Soviet), as well as the outstanding works in Western literature, is studied in the 8-10 classes.

In mathematics, algebra and geometry are continued and a course in trigonometry taught.

Besides botany and zoology, other subjects are anatomy and physiology and the principles of Darwinism.

The secondary-school program includes a four-year course on general history and a two-year course on the history of the peoples of the U.S.S.R. The course in history in the 8-10

classes gives the pupil a more profound understanding of the Marxist-Leninist teaching about the productive forces and their role in the historical processes, about the relations of production, the class struggle, the socialist revolution and the dictatorship of the proletariat, about the leading role of the great Russian people in the history of the peoples of the U.S.S.R.

The economic geography of the U.S.S.R. and of the principal foreign states is taught in the higher classes of secondary school. The ideological trend followed by geography is to give the pupil a scientific materialist world outlook, to cultivate in him a love for the Motherland, to show him that only the Great October Revolution, only the Stalin five-year plans made it possible to tap the enormous natural resources of the U.S.S.R. and completely transform their native land, to imbue a respect for the working masses of other countries.

The pupils in the higher classes take the full course in physics: mechanics, including hydro- and aerodynamics, heat, molecular physics, changes in the aggregate state of bodies, the operations of gas and steam, electricity and optics. The program devotes much time to work in the laboratory. The practical

application of physics is stressed throughout the course.

The course in chemistry aims to furnish the pupil with the knowledge needed to understand the processes taking place in nature, to understand the problems connected with the widespread employment of chemistry in the country, to acquaint him with the scientific principles of chemical production and to develop in him an integral world outlook.

A short course in astronomy—the structure, movement and development of the heavenly bodies—is taught in the last class. Like natural science, physics and chemistry, this subject is of great importance in developing materialist views among the youth.

Beginning with the 5th class one of three foreign languages (English, German or French) is taught.

A distinguishing feature of the secondary school in the U.S.S.R. is that it gives the pupil a broad and all-round education.

Pupils are passed from one class to another on the basis of examinations. On completing school they have to take the matriculation examinations in the following subjects: Russian language and literature (written and oral), mathematics (algebra, geometry and

trigonometry—written and oral) and oral examinations in physics, chemistry, history and a foreign language. Pupils who graduate with honours receive a gold or silver medal. This entitles them to enter a higher educational establishment without taking the entrance examination.

Great attention is paid to educational work in the school. The lesson—the process of study—is the principal form of instruction. The education of conscious builders of communist society, the instruction of children in the high qualities of the new man is carried out by the teacher at the daily lesson.

Another form of instruction are extraschool activities which can be divided into mass activities (school socials and celebrations, excursions, etc.), and work in different circles. All schools in the U.S.S.R. have their circles: general educational, literary, geography, history, mathematics, young naturalists, young technicians, etc.; art circles—dramatic, chorus, fine arts; sports, physical culture, and others. All these circles, which help to broaden the outlook of the pupil, train him to work independently, and develop his esthetic tastes, are guided in their work by teachers.

There are also the pupils' committees in the

seven-year and secondary schools whose object is to promote the independent activity, organizational ability and initiative of pupils, and to improve the level of studies and the conscious discipline of the pupils. In the 5-10 classes the pupils elect their monitors every half year at classroom meetings. Pupils' committees of 5-7 members, which are guided in their work by the school principal, are elected at general meetings (starting with the 5th class).

The school principal is responsible for the general supervision of educational work. Beginning with the 4th class, the class teacher (chosen from among those teaching in the same class) is responsible for this work in each given class.

The school carries on its educational work in close contact with the parents who periodically come together at general school and class meetings. The general parents' meeting elects a parents' committee which takes an active part in the life of the school.

Among the methods applied in educational work are persuasion, explanation, encouragement and reprimand. Soviet pedagogy resolutely rejects such "measures of persuasion" as corporal punishment (which, incidentally, is still practised in some bourgeois states).

The "Pupil's Rules" are of great educational value. Made up of 20 points in all, they briefly instruct the pupil on his duties to the school, to the director and teachers, to his parents and elders. The Rules stress the need "to master knowledge diligently and persistently in order to be an educated and cultured citizen and bring the maximum benefit to the Soviet Motherland." It is the duty of the pupil to study diligently, to attend classes regularly, implicitly carry out the instructions of the principal and teachers; to be neat, modest, to behave decorously at the lesson, in school, on the street and in public places; to be polite, considerate and courteous to old people, small children, the weak and the sick, and to give them every assistance; to obey their parents, help them, and look after their small brothers and sisters.

The Young Pioneer and Young Communist League organizations play an important role in the schools. Their main object is to assist the school and the teacher in the communist education of the pupil, to improve discipline and raise the level of studies.

The Young Pioneer organization enrolls children between the ages of 9 and 14. Every school has its Young Pioneer detachment. The

detachment is divided into groups consisting of the pupils of one or several classes. The groups in their turn are divided into links. Talks on political, scientific and literary subjects, songs, games and excursions are among the activities of the Pioneer groups. In the summer, Young Pioneer camps are organized in the country. At these camps the children gain in health, still further develop the team spirit, take part in public measures (such as lending a helping hand on the farms, etc.). In 1941 there were more than 12,000,000 children in the Pioneer organization. At the beginning of 1949 the figure was 13,000,000.

The Young Pioneer organization is guided in its work by the Young Communist League, which has its branches in all seven-year and secondary schools, beginning with the 7th class. It renders extensive assistance to the school principal and teachers in their work, in training school children to be conscientious, disciplined and educated citizens prepared to perform any work called for by their native land. The YCL'ers are the vanguard of the Soviet youth. At its Tenth Congress in 1936 the Young Communist League raised as the central task of YCL activities in the school, systematic work to organize studies, persistent effort to ensure

that pupils master the principles of the sciences and excel in their studies.

The Eleventh Congress of the Young Communist League, held in April 1949, defined the immediate tasks of the YCL in the school. The Congress recognized that the underlying principle of the YCL's educational work was to educate school children in the spirit of Soviet patriotism, of boundless devotion to the cause of Lenin-Stalin. YCL'ers must be an example to the other pupils in studies and discipline.

They must take an active part in putting the law on universal compulsory education into effect by assisting to register all children due to attend school; by seeing to it that no pupils keep away from school and that all children of school age are enrolled.

The Young Communist League helps to educate the school youth in a spirit of deep respect and love for socialist labour, to take part to the best of their ability in socially useful work, to help equip schools, to wireless schools and the homes of collective farmers, to work on school plots, etc.

The Congress again emphasized that an important task of the YCL was to raise the teachers' prestige in every way and to assist them in their great and noble work.

Special Schools. The Soviet Government spares no effort to enable children with heavy physical deformities to become useful members of society and not to feel neglected. There are special boarding schools where the blind, the deaf and dumb and mentally backward receive a general education and learn a trade. Teachers for these schools are trained at special defectology faculties in pedagogical institutes.

There are also special elementary, seven-year and secondary schools for the blind where the term of study is only a year longer than in the ordinary school. On completing secondary school many of the blind pupils enter university or any one of the other higher educational institutions in the country.

The special nine-year school for the deaf and dumb gives the pupil an elementary education and also a vocational training. Beginning with 1943 special schools for the deaf and dumb were organized where the curriculum is similar to that of the seven-year school.

The mentally backward children attend a special seven-year elementary school where they also learn a trade (boys are taught to be carpenters or fitters; girls the needle and other trades).

A striking example of the signal achievements of Soviet defectology pedagogues is the training and education of Olga Ivanovna Skorokhodova, a blind, deaf and dumb girl.

Olga Skorokhodova was born in a peasant family. At the age of five she turned blind and deaf following a severe illness, and soon after lost her speech. Olga was not quite ten when she was brought to Kharkov and placed in a special institution for the deaf and dumb where her education was supervised by I. A. Sokolyansky, a professor of defectology.

In her book *The World as I See It,* published in 1947, Skorokhodova writes:

"It is only in our country where the demarcation line between the physical and mental labour of man is being obliterated, where we can all put our knowledge to good purpose in any sphere of life, that a deaf and dumb girl like me can become an equal member of society, a politically conscious daughter of her beloved Socialist Motherland; although deaf and blind I am a member of the Young Communist League of the Soviet Union; now that I have regained the faculty of speech I can address YCL meetings.... From J. V. Stalin, our great friend and the teacher of all mankind, from my unforgettable friend, the late

M. Gorky, I am learning how to work and to be modest."

O. I. Skorokhodova is thoroughly acquainted not only with Soviet fiction and the Russian classics but also with the finest works of world literature. She does modelling and has a delicate feel for the beauty of sculptural work, possesses a rich literary talent, as can be judged from her poem, beautiful in form and profound in content, printed in the afore-mentioned book. To cite but a few lines from this poem:

THOUGHT IT IS BY MANY

Thought it is by many,—those acute of hearing,
Those who see the sunlight, and the moon who see,—
"What knows she of beauty, one bereft of seeing,
What deaf ear could fathom springtide's melody?"
Well I sense the odours and the damp of meadows,
And my skipping fingers feel the flutt'ring leaf,
As I roam at twilight deep amid the shadows
Where there's love and visions and no place
for grief.

. . . . . .

I've my soul to see with, I've my heart to hear with,
And with winged ambition I'll embrace the earth.
Is it every human that is stirred by beauty,
Though he hears and sees it from his very birth?

The results of the training and education received by O. I. Skorokhodova—her materialistic world outlook, high ideological and polit-

ical level, rich intellect, artistic development, literary talent, Bolshevik will and cheerfulness, her capacity for work, her aversion to mysticism and philistinism—vividly demonstrate the big strides made by Soviet pedagogy, by the Soviet educational system.

Children's Homes. The upbringing of children who have lost their parents is given every attention by the state in the U.S.S.R. Particular solicitude is shown for war orphans. All these children are taken care of by the network of special homes in the country where they live and are educated at the expense of the state.

These homes are divided into preschool homes (from 3 to 7 years), and homes for children of school age (from 7 to 16 years). The children of these homes attend the seven-year or secondary school in the vicinity along with all other children; they also get a vocational training. All the homes have their different circles, with the amateur art circle predominant among them.

Schools for Adults. Schools for Young Industrial and Agricultural Workers. Already in the early years after the Great October Socialist Revolution the Communist Party and the Soviet Government introduced a series of

measures to abolish illiteracy among the adult population, widely drawing the Soviet public into this work. Two-year evening *schools for adults* were first opened in 1920. The annual number of adults attending these, which gave an elementary education, reached a high figure and in 1933 totalled 4,200,000.

In addition to these elementary schools advanced schools were opened, later reorganized into incomplete secondary and secondary schools for adults.

The final examinations were the same as in the ordinary seven-year or secondary school and entitled the graduates to the same status. Adults who went through incomplete secondary school could enter a technical high school; those finishing the secondary school for adults —a higher educational establishment. We have tens of thousands of engineers, doctors, teachers, agronomists and other specialists in the U.S.S.R. today who received their secondary education in the schools for adults before entering university.

During the Great Patriotic War the educational system for adults was reorganized. In place of the former advanced type of school, correspondence (secondary) schools were started.

At the very height of the Great Patriotic War a new type of school was organized in the Soviet Union—the schools for *young industrial and agricultural workers.*

It became necessary to open such schools for the large number of juveniles who, owing to wartime conditions, had had to leave the school desk and go into production. Hundreds of thousands of young men and women changed the school desk for the lathe which produced armaments for the army.

The Central Committee of the Young Communist League of the Soviet Union, taking this into account, submitted a request to the Government in 1943 that the youth engaged in production be given the possibility to further their education without interrupting work.

The Government granted this request and passed a decision to open special general-education evening schools at the enterprises for young workers. A year later similar schools were opened in the rural areas for the collective-farm youth.

There are two types of school for the young worker: incomplete secondary school consisting of the 5th, 6th and 7th classes and the secondary school of the 5th-10th classes.

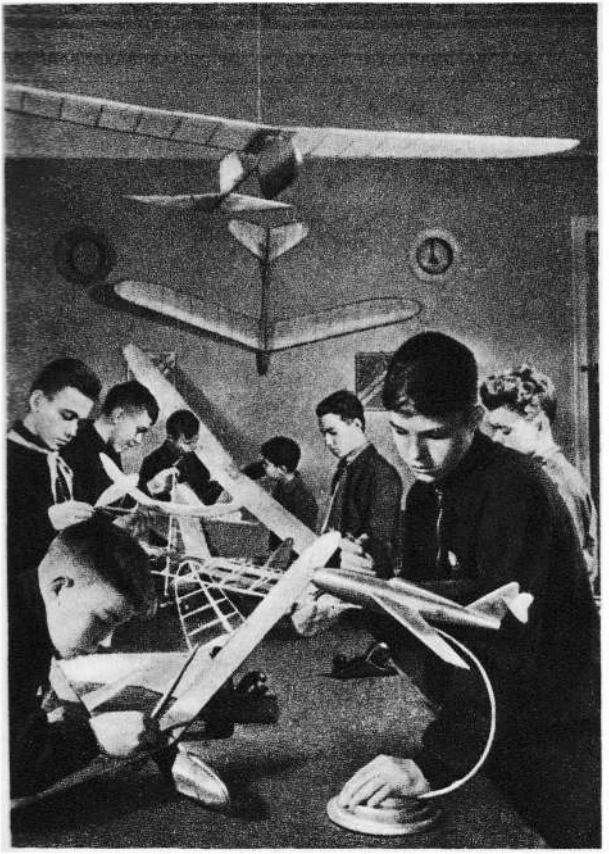
The program is the same as in the seven-year and secondary schools. Pupils are passed from one class to another on the basis of examinations. Those finishing incomplete secondary school take the final examinations; those finishing secondary school, the matriculation examination.

The lessons are arranged according to the conditions in production, according to shifts (morning, afternoon, evening). The curriculum allows for sixteen hours a week in the classroom and four hours for consultation. Thus, although the number of hours is less (only two-thirds of the study time) than in the ordinary seven-year and secondary schools, the young workers manage, as practice has shown, to master the program and, on completing school, successfully to take the entrance examinations in technical colleges and higher educational establishments.

The great ability displayed by the pupils in these schools is explained by the fact that in the majority of cases they are young people with great will power and persistence, enthusiasts eager for knowledge. A large number of them are Stakhanovites who know what the time factor means, and how to organize their work. A no less important factor is the well-

planned organization of studies. The state renders extensive assistance by granting a number of privileges to these young workers: they are released from night shifts and overtime work, are allowed additional vacations with pay in order to take their examinations.

Over half a million workers are attending these schools and nearly three-quarters of a million the schools for young agricultural workers.



The airplane designing laboratory of the Palace of Young Pioneers, Saratov

The choregraphic circle (younger group) of the Moscow House of Young Pioneers

Around the campfire. A Young Pioneer leader

EXTRASCHOOL ESTABLISHMENTS

A number of different kinds of children's extraschool establishments has been opened in the Soviet Union to meet the varied interests of children and juveniles, to broaden their education and develop their creative abilities. The activities of these establishments greatly supplement the educational work of the school.

The Soviet State has placed hundreds of palaces, parks, libraries and other institutions at the disposal of children. There are nearly 700 Young Pioneer palaces and houses, 300 centres for young technicians, 200 for young naturalists, etc., in the R.S.F.S.R. alone. The example of the Leningrad Pioneer Palace will give the reader an idea of the nature and scale of these establishments. Occupying one of the most beautiful buildings in the city—the former imperial Anichkov Palace—it has 308 rooms and halls in which over 700 different studios, laboratories, workshops and circles are

working. It also has its technical, science, art and physical culture sections, a library, lecture hall and theatre.

Moscow, Kharkov, Yaroslavl, as well as other cities of the Soviet Union, have similar palaces.

There is also the Artek All-Union Pioneer Camp in the Crimea. Situated in a picturesque spot on the shores of the Black Sea, it is the annual vacation centre of thousands of Young Pioneers from all parts of the country. Young Pioneers can also spend their summer vacation on the Volga on one of the many floating rest homes—ships equipped with all the necessary recreation facilities. In many big cities children's railways have been built which are run by children themselves.

Children have their libraries in all cities. Apart from giving out books these libraries carry on extensive educational work in the form of readers' conferences, exhibitions and competitions, literary evenings, etc.

For children who are nature lovers or are interested in agriculture there are the young naturalists' circles and centres, headed by the Central Station of Young Naturalists in Moscow. These centres have their land plots where children experiment in agronomy. Lead-

ing Soviet scientists supervise the work of the young naturalists.

There are also the technical centres for the children keen on mechanics, tourist centres for those interested in tourism, children's stadiums, sports grounds, skating rinks, skiing and aquatics centres for those whose hobby is sports.

The extraschool establishments include art centres which have their branches in many cities of the Soviet Union, special children's and puppet theatres and movie houses which arrange special showings for children.

An important role in the communist education of children is played by the press. Nineteen children's newspapers and fifteen magazines are printed in the U.S.S.R. in Russian and in the other languages of the peoples inhabiting the country. There are several children's publishing houses, the biggest of these being the State Publishing House of Children's Literature in Moscow. Children's books are printed in millions of copies.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Lower Vocational Training. The unparalleled scale of socialist construction demands an enormous number of skilled workers. The national economy of the U.S.S.R. knows no crises, no unemployment. Industry and agriculture are steadily on the upgrade. Hence the ever-growing demand for labour power.

In conditions of a planned socialist economy the demand for workers can be satisfied only by systematically training cadres. To meet this requirement the Central Board of Labour Reserves was formed in 1940. Reorganized in 1946 into the Ministry of Labour Reserves of the U.S.S.R., its job is to train skilled workers from among the youth for the different branches of economy.

Thousands of vocational establishments such as trades, railway and factory schools, have been opened throughout the country.

The trades and railway schools train skilled workers for the complex trades: universal lathe

At a lesson in the Stakhanovite school of the steel rolling department of the Stalin Iron and Steel Works, Stalinsk, Kuznetsk Basin

At a mathematics lesson in the evening technical school branch at the Nevsky Machine-Building Plant, Leningrad

Fourth-year students of the Moscow technical school of architecture and construction

Future miners at a lesson on the construction and use of the pneumatic pick. Trades School No. 56, Stalinogorsk, Moscow Region

operators, steel melters' assistants, milling machine operators, electricians, engine drivers' assistants, and so on. These schools enroll juveniles of both sexes between the age of 14-15 possessing at least an elementary education. The training period is between 2-3 years.

The factory schools train workers for the less complex and general trades: plasterers, carpenters, coal hewers, and so on. These schools, where the training period is from five months to a year, are open to boys between 15-17 and girls between 16-18.

All schools of the Labour Reserves are maintained by the state. The pupils are provided with food, school uniforms, footwear, underwear and textbooks free of charge, and those who come from other cities with dormitory accommodation. On completing the course of training, the young workers are placed in industry according to their respective trades, and are paid the same wages as other workers.

The vocational school also furnishes a general education. The trades and railway schools, for instance, devote twenty-five per cent of their time to general educational subjects and to physical training. The general subjects include: the Russian language, math-

ematics, physics, political studies, mechanical drawing. The rest of the program (about seventy-five per cent) is devoted to production and technology—theoretical disciplines and practical work.

The school year is divided into four terms, the daily timetable is seven hours: two hours for general subjects and the remaining five for vocational training.

Big educational work is carried on in the Labour Reserves schools to raise the ideological and political level of the pupils, to strengthen their conscious discipline and to imbue them with a creative attitude to labour.

The following figures will give the reader an idea of the importance the Soviet Union attaches to the vocational training of the youth.

During the first five years of the Labour Reserves schools the state spent 11,000 million rubles on training young workers. Dozens of palaces of culture, nearly 600 clubhouses and several thousand libraries have been built and equipped by the state for the vocational schools. Between 1941-49 the trades, railway and factory schools gave the country's industries and transport more than 4,500,000 educated and skilled workers.

Lower vocational training is also provided by the different enterprises, where the young worker can learn a trade and raise his skill in the different technical circles and courses in the plants and factories. Another form of training cadres now widely practised is that of brigade and individual apprenticeship—the more skilled foremen and workers initiate the novice into the workings of production.

Secondary Vocational Training is provided by the wide network of special secondary schools. The technical schools graduate middle-level specialists for the different branches of industry, transport and agriculture; the medical schools—obstetricians, doctors' assistants; the pedagogical schools—elementary-school teachers. There are also theatrical, musical, art and other schools.

There were 295 secondary vocational schools with 35,800 pupils in Russia before the revolution. In 1950 1,298,000 pupils were attending technical schools and other secondary vocational establishments of the U.S.S.R.

The training period is usually four years. Persons between the ages of 14 and 30, who have finished the seven-year school, are eligible on the basis of entrance examinations.

The program includes general subjects such as literature, mathematics, physics, chemistry, special subjects and practical work in industry.

The technical and other schools have well-equipped laboratories, workshops and classrooms. The lessons take the form of lectures, discussions, practical work, work in laboratories and workshops, and excursions. Considerable time is given to practical work: in industry and in agriculture, in hospitals (for medical schools) and in schools (for pedagogical institutes).

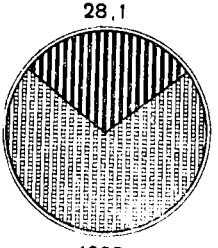
On completing technical school the student takes the final (state) examination, and submits his graduation thesis. All graduates are immediately given posts according to their profession, or can, if they so wish, continue their studies in a higher educational establishment. Technical school students who graduate with honours do not have to work the required three years in their given profession, before they can enter a higher technical establishment.

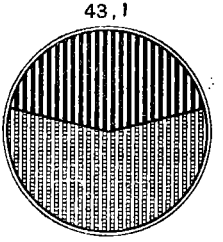
The secondary vocational school in the Soviet Union fundamentally differs from similar establishments in the bourgeois states where only the children of wealthy parents are in a position to complete secondary school

(gymnasium, lycée, etc.), and thus receive a higher education.

In other countries the secondary vocational establishments which are attended by juveniles who have finished elementary, or, at best, advanced elementary school, give their pupils almost exclusively a vocational training and do not broaden their meagre general knowledge. The secondary vocational school in the U.S.S.R., apart from providing a thorough vocational training, furnishes its pupils with the general education needed to enter a higher educational establishment.

Before the revolution only a very small number of women in Russia had access to higher education in special women's colleges and higher educational establishments. They were barred from the universities and higher technical colleges in the country. In the Soviet Union all higher educational establishments are open to men and women alike. During the war women comprised the overwhelming majority of students; even before the war they accounted for a very high percentage of the student body: in 1938, for instance, they constituted 43.1% of the total number of students.





Women students in the higher educational establishments of the U.S.S.R. (per cent)

Here it is interesting to note that the percentage of women students in the higher educational establishments of 22 capitalist coun-

Model of the new 26-storey building of the Moscow State University under construction on the Lenin Hills

Tashkent Pedagogical Institute, Uzbek S.S.R.

tries of Europe for the same year averaged 19.8; this including 28.2% for France, 23.5% for Great Britain, 17.8% for Italy, 13.8% for Belgium.

The entire system of teaching in the higher school has been radically reorganized in the Soviet Union. The higher educational establishments in prerevolutionary Russia did not go in for specialization. Their curricula were very general and superficial. Thus, for instance, the technologcial and polytechnical institutes graduated mechanical and chemical engineers in general, and not according to a special branch.

The Soviet higher school gives the student a thorough and specific training. The industrial institutes, for instance, graduate mechanical and chemical engineers for definite branches of industry. There are, for example, oil, textile, chemical machine-building institutes which in their turn are divided into various faculties. The textile institute, for instance, has a spinning, weaving, knitgoods, sewing, chemical-technological, administrative engineering, art and mechanical faculties.

In 1950 there were 880 higher educational establishments, including 32 universities specializing in different branches. All the

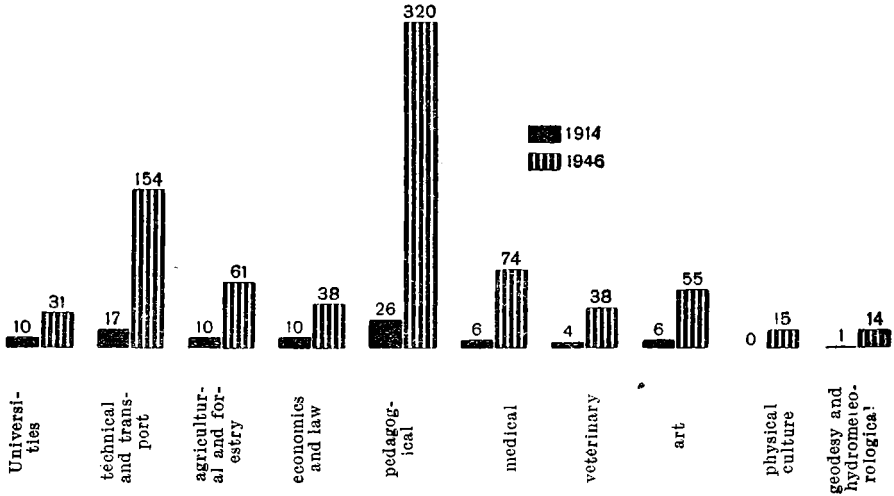
16 republics of the U.S.S.R. have their universities.

The universities graduate scientific workers for research institutes and highly-qualified teachers for the secondary schools. The student body in big universities ranges from 6,000 to 8,000.

The universities have five-six faculties; some eight-nine and even more. The Moscow University, for instance, has twelve faculties: historical, philological, philosophical, economics, juridical, geographical, mechanics-mathematical, physics, physics-technical, biological, chemical, geological-soil. The university course is five years.

The different institutes—industrial, transport, building, communications, agricultural, economic, pedagogical, medical, architectural, theatrical, musical, cinematographical, and others—train highly-skilled specialists and scientific cadres for the enumerated branches. Institutes of the key branches of industry, agriculture and culture go in for still greater specialization: oil, textile, steel, non-ferrous metals, sericulture, cotton irrigation, mechanization of agriculture, fishing, foreign languages, library, physical culture, etc.

The institutes, too, are divided into faculties



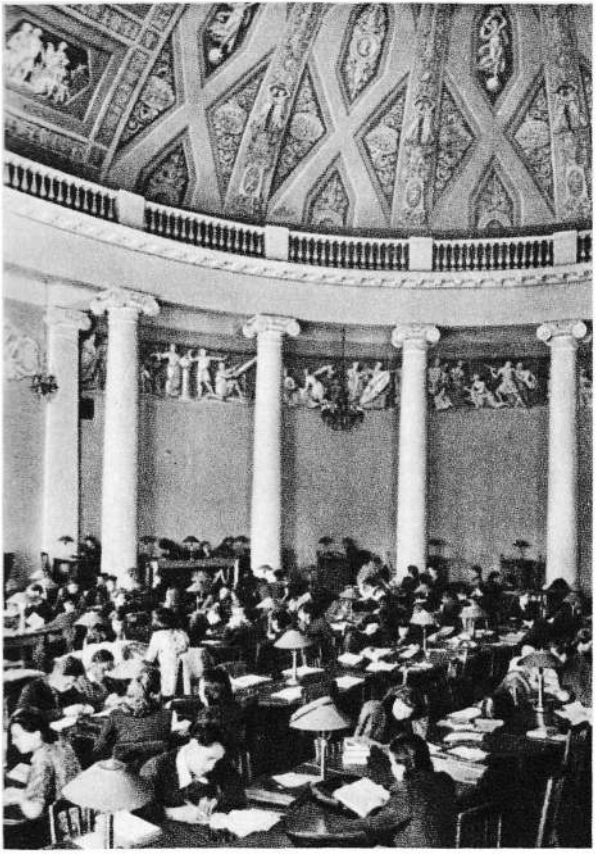
Comparative number of higher educational establishments in prerevolutionary Russia and in the U.S.S.R. (according to speciality)

(and departments) which vary between three and eight. The Leningrad Industrial Institute, for instance, has the following faculties: metallurgical, mechanical, electrical-mechanical, power-machine building, hydro-technical, physical engineering, administrative engineering.

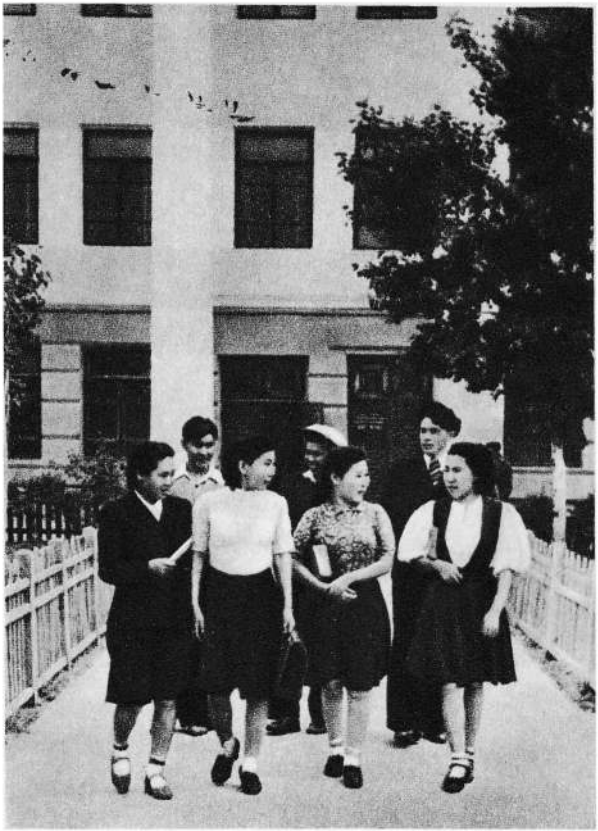
The student enrollment in big institutes is between 4,000 and 6,000. The course is from four to six years, depending on the type of institute.

The head of the university is the rector, of the institute the director. Every higher educational establishment has its Academic Council made up of leading professors and docents. The faculty is headed by the dean, appointed from among the professors of the given faculty, and by the Academic Council of the faculty. The academic body that coordinates the work of the various subjects (or groups of closely-related subjects), is the chair (for instance, the Chair of Ancient History, the Chair of Mathematical Analysis, etc.).

Professors, docents, teachers and assistants comprise the academic personnel. The posts of professors and docents are filled in competition among persons with the respective academic title. The Higher Certificate Commission of the Ministry of Higher Education of the U.S.S.R.



Reading room of the Lomonosov State University library, Moscow



First-year students of the Northern Peoples' Department, Khabarovsk Pedagogical Institute

confers the title of professor on scientific workers who have a doctor's degree in the corresponding sphere. The title of docent is bestowed on scientific workers who have a master's degree in the given field. The first scientific degree (master) is conferred on postgraduates who have taken the three-year course, have passed their final examinations and defended a dissertation. Only persons with a master's degree can take their doctorate. The doctorate is given for a profound scientific study containing broad scientific generalizations, a scientific discovery, or a new and original work. Only a very small number of higher educational establishments and scientific research institutes have the right to accept doctors' dissertations or to confer scientific degrees.

People of both sexes (up to the age of 35) who have graduated secondary, technical, pedagogical or medical school, can enter any of the country's higher educational establishments, after taking the entrance examination in the Russian language, literature and one of three foreign languages (English, French or German) and also two examinations on specific subjects. (For instance, students entering the physics-mathematical faculty of a university or higher technical establishments have to

take the examination in mathematics and physics.) Pupils who graduate secondary school with a gold or silver medal are exempted from entrance examinations.

The Ministry of Higher Education approves the course of instruction in every faculty. The curriculum of all faculties includes a course of Marxism-Leninism and a foreign language. Practical work comes in for a big share of the program.

Lessons take up six-seven hours a day. In the first two years the lecture is the principal form of instruction. Later the seminar and practical work in laboratories take up much of the program, and also lectures on special subjects. At the end of each year the student has to present a written work on one of the many subjects (at his choice) announced in advance by the professors and approved by the corresponding departments.

In addition to theoretical studies much time is given to practical work in the given branch. For instance, geographical expeditions are arranged for students of the geographical faculty; work in mines and geological-prospecting expeditions for students of the mining institutes and geological-prospecting faculties; students of agricultural institutes and acade-

mies carry on practical work on state and collective farms, and so on.

The academic year starts September 1, and is divided into two terms. At the end of each term examinations are held during 3-4 weeks, in the course of which the student takes 3-4 examinations, which are rated according to a system of four marks: excellent, good, satisfactory, bad; and 4-5 other tests which are simply marked "passed." The examinations are conducted by the professors and docents of the corresponding course. Each student has his student's book (matricula), in which the examination marks are entered.

The student is allowed to take the succeeding year's course only after passing the established examinations and tests. Students in the last year take the final (state) examinations in addition to the examinations of the last course. They also have to submit their graduation thesis. In higher technical establishments, the student has to submit his graduation design to a special state examining commission.

Nearly every higher educational establishment has its scientific circles and societies which are guided in their activities by professors and teachers. This form of self-activity, as well as competitions for the best scientific

work by students and student conferences, helps to draw students into scientific work and to acquire habits of independent scientific research. The different circles also contribute to developing the student's ability to perform independent creative work.

The Soviet higher educational establishments also carry on extensive scientific research work.

For instance, the school of mathematics of the Moscow University, which is world famous, has rendered great services in the sphere of aerodynamics, initiated by the renowned scientist Professor N. Y. Zhukovsky and continued by Academician S. A. Chaplygin and his students. Academicians N. D. Zelinsky, S. S. Nametkin and A. N. Nesmeyanov, all professors of the Moscow University, have been doing profound research work in the field of chemistry. The Leningrad University is famous for its research in the sphere of optics (Academician D. S. Rozhdestvensky and others), geography (Academicians A. A. Grigoriev and L. S. Berg), oriental studies (B. M. Alexeyev and I. J. Krachkovsky). Extensive scientific work has been conducted in the field of philology, history of the Russian and Slav languages (Academicians S. P. Obnorsky,

L. V. Shcherba, N. S. Derzhavin, V. V. Vinogradov, and others).

The Kiev, Kharkov and Kazan universities have made big contributions to higher mathematics and geology, the Molotov University to the biological subjects.

Research schools treating with the history and culture of the Caucasus, Georgia and Armenia have been opened in the young universities of Georgia and Armenia. Academicians I. A. Javakhishvili, S. N. Javajia and other professors of the University of Georgia have done research showing the high culture of ancient Georgia and have written a history of Georgia. A group of eminent scientists of the Erevan University have formed a school to study the history and culture of Armenia, and have already brought this school world renown.

Of the higher technical establishments the Bauman Higher Technical School in Moscow, the Leningrad and Moscow mining institutes, the Leningrad Polytechnical and Oil institutes are notable for their scientific achievements.

The talented scientist Academician T. D. Lysenko has carried out extremely important scientific research work in the sphere of agrobiology. He has exposed the unscientific, reactionary Weismann-Morganist "theory" and fur-

ther advanced the teachings of the great transformer of nature, I. V. Michurin, teachings based on the principles of dialectical materialism, and which represent creative Soviet Darwinism.

In the sphere of medical sciences the works of Academicians N. N. Burdenko and S. I. Spasokukotsky on surgery, of Professor V. P. Filatov in ophtalmology, to note but a few, call for special mention.

Apart from their educational and scientific research work the higher educational establishments also popularize scientific and technical knowledge among the masses. Professors and lecturers read lectures and deliver reports at enterprises, in Soviet Army units and in schools. Many higher educational establishments have opened special lecture centres; eminent professors help to draw up secondary-school textbooks, write books and pamphlets popularizing science, contribute articles to magazines.

Our scientists are establishing ever closer ties with industry. The technical institutes and other scientific organizations of Leningrad, for instance, do scientific-research work for industry, regularly arrange consultations for workers and technical examinations.

Studies in the higher schools are combined with ideological-political education, based on the teachings of Marx-Engels-Lenin-Stalin. The course in Marxism-Leninism plays an important role. Theoretical conferences on the works of Lenin and Stalin are regularly organized with the help and active participation of the student organizations. These conferences supplement the course on "The Foundations of Marxism-Leninism." There are also special circles on current politics, and reports and lectures delivered on political subjects.

Lectures, socials, concerts, films, meetings with scientists and writers, the organization of scientific, physical culture and sports circles are part of the cultural activities conducted by the higher educational establishments to meet the varied interests of their students. Many of the higher institutions of learning also have their chorus and orchestra, clubrooms, publish their newspapers and scientific magazines.

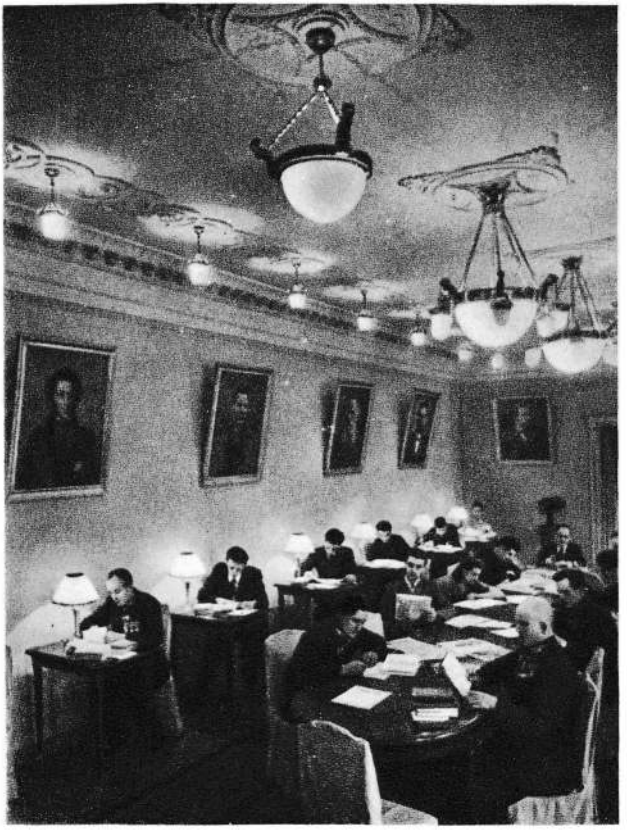
All students who excel in their studies receive a state stipend which is increased year by year. Many of the higher educational establishments have special stipends named after prominent statesmen and scientists. The most distinguished of these, the Stalin stipend, is given to honour students.

Students from other towns are provided with accommodation in the university dormitories, built and equipped on state funds.

Many of the higher educational establishments have special evening and correspondence courses for factory and office workers who want to further their education. The evening course, where the term of studies is six years, is open to persons working in the same city, while the correspondence course is designed for those living out of town. Students of this course do written assignments, and twice a year come into town to attend lectures, carry out practical work and pass their examinations. On completing the course they take the regular state examinations, or submit their graduation thesis. The same status is granted them as graduates of any other higher educational establishment. Nearly 300,000 students are studying in evening and correspondence courses. The total student body in the higher educational schools in the U.S.S.R. in 1950 was 1,247,000 (including correspondence-course students).

The V. I. Lenin State Library in Moscow

Metallurgists' Palace of Culture in Stalinsk



Reading room in the Miners' Palace of Culture
in Stalino, Donbas

CULTURAL-EDUCATIONAL WORK

The cultural-educational institutions play an important role in the system of public education. The wide network of clubhouses, libraries and museums brings culture within the reach of millions of men and women of all nationalities.

All cultural-educational work among adults in the U.S.S.R. has as its aim to give them a communist education, to enlighten the masses, to arm them with the advanced scientific knowledge needed to build Socialism.

The Soviet Government allocates big sums for the organization and upkeep of cultural-educational establishments and gives public organizations every encouragement in their activities in this sphere.

The unfailing assistance and support given by the state and the public have enabled the cultural-educational establishments to carry on their activities on a scale truly

gigantic. The number of clubhouses and other such bodies runs into many tens of thousands.

There is hardly an enterprise of importance in the Soviet Union that has not got its clubhouse and library. Moscow alone, for instance, has 21 palaces of culture and 152 trade union clubhouses. They vary in size: some are comparatively small, others—real centres of culture, remarkable for their fine architecture and rich equipment. The Palace of Culture of the Stalin Automobile Plant in Moscow is among these cultural centres. Specially built for the purpose, it has a theatre (1,100 seats), concert and lecture halls, a ballroom for 700 people, a big hall of columns with a seating capacity of 1,200, a fine library, studios, gymnasiums, and a host of other rooms for its different educational, technical and art circles. The clubhouse can accommodate more than 5,000 people. The Magnitogorsk Plant and the Kirov Works in Leningrad have similar Palaces of Culture.

The clubhouses conduct mass work and also group activities, arrange lectures, reports, concerts, plays and excursions. Every clubhouse has its library and reading room.

Activities in various circles which stimulate the creative abilities and initiative of the masses are the most popular form of cultural-educational work in the clubhouses.

There are different kinds of educational circles (literary, historical, technical sciences), and also art (dramatic, choral, musical, choregraphic), fine arts (painting, drawing), technical and physical culture circles.

The clubhouses follow the principle of self-activity in their work. Every clubhouse has an elected board, and is subsidized by the trade union and enterprise. There are clubhouses in the rural areas as well.

In 1939 there were more than 100,000 clubhouses in the U.S.S.R. During the war their number considerably shrank but increased rapidly in the postwar years.

The parks of culture and rest—a new type of establishment which first became popular in 1930—promote activities similar to those of the clubhouses.

The Gorky Central Park of Culture and Rest in Moscow occupies a territory of 297 hectares on the picturesque bank of the Moscow River. Its beautiful pavilions, skirted with flower beds and lawns, its children's theatre, cinema, concert and lecture halls,

libraries and reading rooms, technical centre, aquatic sports centre and sports grounds, attract tens of thousands of visitors daily.

There are similar parks, smaller in size, in different parts of Moscow, Leningrad, and in other cities, workers' districts and even in big villages.

The big network of libraries also contributes its share to cultural-educational work in the U.S.S.R. These are divided into several groups: 1) public state libraries; 2) scientific libraries; 3) general libraries; 4) libraries belonging to different establishments, and 5) children's libraries.

There were 240,765 libraries with 442,200,000 volumes in the U.S.S.R. at the beginning of 1939.

The fascist vandals barbarously destroyed tens of thousands of libraries and burned millions of books in the territories temporarily occupied by them. These were restored by the Soviet people, with the generous assistance of the Soviet Government, as soon as the German fascist invaders were expelled from Soviet territory. In 1950 the number of libraries and their book fund far exceeded the prewar figure.

The V. I. Lenin State Library in Moscow is the largest library in the country. Before

At a lecture in the Stalin Collective Farm,
Rostov Region

A travelling library in the field. Rodnikov, Krasnodar Territory

the October Revolution it had 1,050,000 volumes and journals (1913); in 1938 the figure was 9,600,000 books and journals. The number of its readers for the same period increased from 13,600 to 65,234. Even before the Great Patriotic War the Lenin Library had more books than the Washington National Library and the New York Public Library taken together, and twice as many books as the library of the British Museum in London or the National Library in Paris.

The other big public libraries in the country such as the Saltykov-Shchedrin State Library in Leningrad and the Korolenko Library in Kharkov, have also greatly increased their book fund compared with prerevolutionary times. All the Union republics now have their public state libraries.

The wide network of special scientific libraries meets the requirements of the country's scientists, of the personnel of scientific-research institutions, of engineers, writers and students. The rich libraries of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. and the library of the Moscow University call for special mention.

There were only 12,600 public libraries in Russia before the October Revolution; by 1939

their number had increased to 77,590, that is, by 6.2 times. Today there are close to 100,000 public libraries with nearly 200,000,000 volumes in the Soviet Union.

A notable achievement of Soviet culture is the big increase in the number of public libraries in the Union republics in the East where, before the revolution, there were no libraries at all in the rural areas and hardly any in the towns. Uzbekistan, for instance, where before the revolution a book was a rarity among the native population, today has nearly 2,000 public libraries, two-thirds of which are in the rural areas.

Museums—regional, natural science, historical, industrial-engineering, and others—constitute a big group of cultural-educational establishments. The deep reverence the peoples of the U.S.S.R. have for the memory of their great countrymen is reflected in the organization of a large number of memorial museums. The V. I. Lenin Museum in Moscow, with branches in different cities, holds pride of place. There are three museums dedicated to the memory of the great Russian writer, L. N. Tolstoy; also a Chaikovsky and a Chekhov museum to mention but a few. Of the art

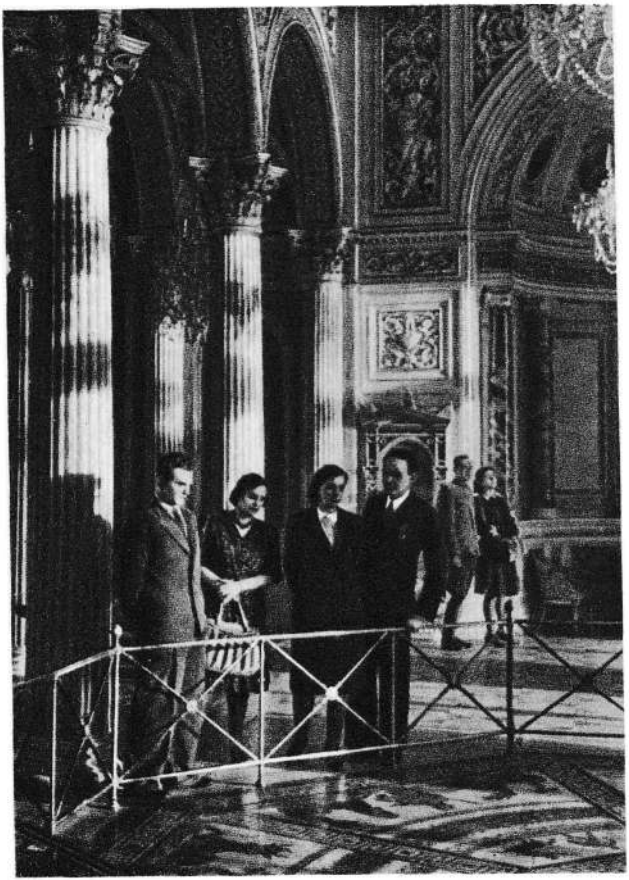
museums the famous Tretyakov Gallery in Moscow and the Russian Museum in Leningrad merit special attention.

Lectures play an important role in popularizing political and scientific knowledge among the people. Lectures are arranged by the special lecture bureaus which have been opened by the Committee for Cultural-Educational Establishments, by higher educational institutions, scientific-research institutions and clubhouses. Many of the lecture bureaus have their regular staff of lecturers which include academicians, professors and scientists.

In 1947 the All-Union Society for the Dissemination of Political and Scientific Knowledge was organized on the initiative of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. The leading scientific-research institutions and higher educational establishments of the Soviet Union are among its charter members and academicians, professors, writers, artists and composers have been elected to its Board on the recommendation of different organizations and public bodies. The public lectures arranged by the Society in Moscow and other towns are a great success. In 1948 83,000 lectures were

given, attended by 12,000,000 people; in 1949 the figure was 250,000 lectures, with an attendance of 29,000,000.

Many lectures have been arranged also by the committees for cultural-educational establishments. Thus, for instance, 830,000 lectures were read in the R.S.F.S.R. alone in 1947.



The Hermitage in Leningrad

The Nizami Museum in Baku, which bears the name of the great Azerbaijan poet

The A. S. Pushkin State Museum of Fine Arts in Moscow

THE SOVIET TEACHER

Soviet pedagogy attaches great importance to the teacher, who plays the main and decisive role in educational work.

A fervent patriot of his Motherland, the educator of the growing generation, the teacher—who actively helps the Party in the struggle to build Communism—must have an integral scientific world outlook, must have a broad general and a profound theoretical knowledge, be highly proficient in his profession, understand and love children. The teacher must be a moral example to his pupils, must educate them in the spirit of communist ideology and morals.

The teacher's contribution to the common work of socialist construction is highly appreciated by the Communist Party, the Soviet Government and Comrade Stalin personally. "The phalanx of schoolteachers," stated Comrade Stalin as early as 1925, "is one of the most necessary parts of our country's great

army of working people who are building a new life on the foundations of Socialism."

By their work in the school, their participation in public life and their defence of the country in the difficult years of the Great Patriotic War hundreds of thousands of Soviet teachers showed that they were worthy of the high trust placed in them by the people, that they were carrying out their duty to the Motherland with honour.

With the cultural development of the Soviet Land the army of teachers grew immeasurably. Increasing demands were made on them. In 1914-15 the general educational schools of prerevolutionary Russia were staffed by 231,007 teachers. Today the U.S.S.R. has considerably more than one and a half million teachers.

Work on a wide scale was started to build a network of higher and secondary pedagogical institutions, methodological centres and other such establishments to train this vast number of teachers in a comparatively short space of time.

The pedagogical schools, which accept pupils who have completed the seven-year school, graduate elementary-school teachers (four-year course). In addition to a secondary education

these schools give the future teachers a theoretical grounding in psychology, pedagogy, the history of pedagogics and a course in methodology. Considerable attention is paid to practical work in school.

The two-year teachers' institutes which are open to pupils who have completed secondary school, prepare teachers for the 5th-7th classes of the seven-year and secondary schools.

Teachers for the 8th-10th classes of secondary school are graduated by the higher pedagogical institutes and universities. The pedagogical institutes have the following faculties: language and literature, historical, geographical, physico-mathematics, natural science and foreign languages. There are also special pedagogical faculties in some of these institutes which train teachers of pedagogy and psychology for the pedagogical schools and qualified teachers in preschool education. The term of study in the pedagogical institute is four years.

The U.S.S.R. holds first place in the world in the number of higher pedagogical institutions—138 pedagogical and 236 teachers' training institutes.

Many regional centres have special postgraduate institutes for teachers where the latter can take a refresher course and further their

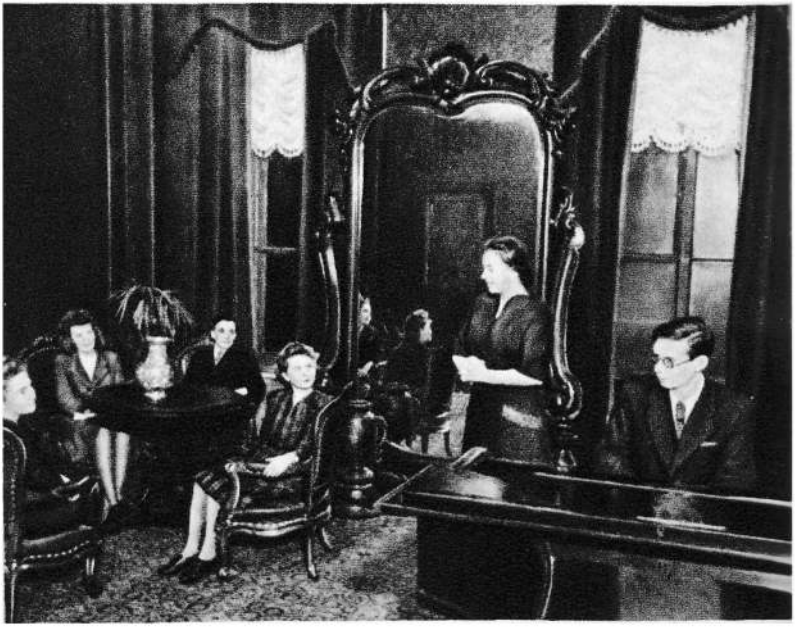
education in keeping with the latest achievements in this sphere. There are also evening and correspondence courses in the pedagogical and teachers' training institutes for the teacher who wants to advance in his profession without interrupting his regular pedagogical work.

Special teachers have been trained for the non-Russian schools and especially those which formerly had no written language of their own.

The peoples of the Soviet Union and the Soviet Government highly appreciate the work of the teacher for whom they have a great regard and highly reward his services.

V. I. Lenin wrote that "Our schoolteacher should be raised to a standard never achieved and unachievable in bourgeois society." The peoples of the U.S.S.R. show their esteem for the Soviet teacher by electing many of them to leading organs of the state: Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., Supreme Soviets of the Union republics; to the area, district, city and rural Soviets of Working People's Deputies. The deputies to the Eighth Extraordinary Congress of Soviets which adopted the great Stalin Constitution, included 27 teachers.

N. Golub, Honoured Teacher of the Byelorussian S.S.R., decorated with the Order of Lenin for long service in pedagogy, is a teacher in women's sec



Teachers' clubhouse in the Zhdanov District,
Moscow

The Soviet State regards the selfless work of the teacher as a labour exploit, a service to society. More than 100,000 teachers have been decorated with Orders and medals of the Soviet Union for long service and irreproachable work.

Teachers in the Soviet Union enjoy a number of privileges and priorities. The title of "Honoured Teacher" has been conferred on many of them. The Soviet teacher receives the same salary as engineers and technical personnel, long-service bonuses (for every five years' service), a higher salary if he works in an outlying district, a pension after 25 years' service. Teachers have their sanatoria and rest homes in the Crimea, Caucasus and other health resorts, their "Teachers' Centres"—clubhouses with libraries and reading rooms, study rooms, and concert halls—in every city of the Soviet Union.

It is but natural that the great solicitude shown by the Soviet State for the teacher and the warm esteem he is held in by the people should make the teaching profession in the U.S.S.R. one of the most important and honoured professions.

The most favourable conditions exist in the Soviet Land for advancing the lofty and re-

sponsible work of the teacher, for educating active builders and defenders of communist society, highly principled and educated.

* * *

The successes of the Soviet Union in the sphere of public education vividly demonstrate the invincible power of the socialist system. Only in conditions of Socialism are knowledge and culture brought within the reach of the people.

The progressive ideas of socialist culture are taking ever deeper root among all advanced mankind, among the freedom-loving people of the world. The Soviet Union, which heads the invincible forces of peace and democracy, is an inspiring example of the truly people's culture that is being built.